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RICHARD A. BENTON

**PANGASINAN
REFERENCE
GRAMMAR**

PANGASINAN REFERENCE GRAMMAR

PALI LANGUAGE TEXTS: PHILIPPINES

(Pacific & Asian Linguistics Institute)

Howard P. McKaughan

Editor

PANGASINAN REFERENCE GRAMMAR

by

Richard A. Benton

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Foreword

This Reference Grammar forms part of a series for learners of Pangasinan. The other two texts by the same author are Spoken Pangasinan and Pangasinan Dictionary. These materials were developed under a Peace Corps Contract (PC 25-1507) through the Pacific and Asian Linguistics Institute of the University of Hawaii.

It is the hope of the editor of the series and its author's that these materials will encourage many to learn the languages of the Philippines and thereby to get to know its peoples.

Howard P. McKaughan
Editor

Preface

Pangasinan is one of the eight major languages of the Philippines, and is spoken by more than 650,000 people, most of whom live in the central portion of the province of Pangasinan. Although Pangasinan speakers only slightly outnumber speakers of Ilocano in their own province, the cities of San Carlos and Dagupan, the provincial capital Lingayen, and most of the major commercial centers of the province lie within the Pangasinan speaking area, and this alone makes it advantageous for any stranger coming to live in the province to acquire some knowledge of the language.

This book is designed primarily to provide a summary of various aspects of the Pangasinan language which an interested learner with some knowledge of English will find useful in furthering his studies in the language. It is not meant to be used as a textbook for learning the language --that need has been provided for by a companion volume. Rather, it stockpiles information in such a way that it may be referred to by the student to refresh his memory on certain points, clarify structural features which may be puzzling to him, and provide further examples of features of the language he may encounter elsewhere and wish to employ in different contexts.

The aim of this grammar then is to help the learner interpret what he hears and reads, and to answer some of the questions about the language which are likely to puzzle the English speaking student. This book is not, however, a complete and definitive study of the Pangasinan language. It is simply a guided tour, and thus will satisfy some people more than others. It is hoped, however, that it will provide the enterprising tourist with a good basis from which to undertake further explorations on his own, and at the same time provide a good overall view of the language for the less ambitious.

Technical language has been avoided as far as possible, and whatever special terms or concepts have been introduced are carefully explained in the text. It is assumed that most of the people who will be using this book will not be professional stu-

Preface

dents of language, and would rather not have to learn the jargon of linguistics in order to understand what is being said about Pangasinan.

It is also assumed, however, that most readers will be in contact with native speakers of Pangasinan, and thus have opportunities for supplementing the knowledge gained from this work with first-hand observations of their own. The section on phonology, for example, will not mean very much to someone who has no opportunity to hear Pangasinan spoken. Furthermore, the notes on many major grammatical elements are supplemented by translation exercises (with answers) which will be most useful to students who already have some knowledge of the language. In the explanation of any particular element, however, a contrary assumption is made, so that even someone with no knowledge at all of the language should be able to understand what is being discussed.

Finally, a word of warning. Do not ask your Pangasinan informants, unless you know them very well indeed, to evaluate what you say. Out of politeness, they are likely to tell you that everything you say is correct. Avoid questions that could potentially embarrass your informants or friends -if you are not sure what to say, it is better to give several alternatives, and ask which, if any, is better. Even here, of course, there are endless possibilities for being misled, as your associates will go out of their way to avoid hurting your feelings. It is only when they begin to laugh openly and good-naturedly at your mistakes that you can be in any way confident of a straight forward answer to your questions. It is always best to observe carefully what you hear, and to practice speaking the language (and employing new words or patterns you have picked up) as often as possible. Try to overcome the natural hesitation you may feel at groping around in a tongue which is still strange to you. And remember, when your friends start making fun of the way you speak the language, you are probably at last on the way to becoming a proficient speaker of Pangasinan.

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I

PHONOLOGY

I

PHONOLOGY

In this section the sounds of Pangasinan are discussed -- firstly the vowels and consonants, then stress and intonation patterns. As far as is possible, these aspects of Pangasinan speech are compared and contrasted with similar aspects of English. However, the student should continually bear in mind the fact that such comparisons are necessarily inexact, and that everything that is 'said' in this section will be far more meaningful when it is said again in the context of natural conversation by a Pangasinan speaker.

VOWELS

Until very recently, at least, children in English speaking countries have been taught that there are five vowels -a, e, i, o, u. Some learn later that what this really means is that there are five letters of the alphabet which between them represent most of the vowel sounds in English and other languages using the Roman alphabet, but that there is not necessarily a one to one correspondence between letter and sound in any given language (and that in two different languages, the same letter may represent quite dissimilar sounds --so that what a Spaniard and an Englishman would say if asked to read the word pie, each assuming it was a word in his own language, would give us two sharply divergent pronunciations).

In Pangasinan, the conventional five letters are used to represent four or five (maybe even six for some speakers) different vowel sounds, one letter, e, having two possible pronunciations, while two others, o and u really standing for a single significant sound. By and large, however, there is a close correspondence between the letter and the significant sound in Pangasinan, which makes it much easier for a foreigner to read Pangasinan than a language like English, where the spelling system is much more complex.

PHONOLOGY

Significant sounds

What are these 'significant' sounds? Many linguists and language teachers use the term phoneme to describe a cluster of speech sounds that native speakers regard as the same (or that the linguists think they ought to regard as the same), although they may be perceived differently by speakers of other languages. To give an example, let us compare the English words skip and king. To English speakers, the consonant before the i in both words is the same, and identical with the consonant in queue, or the first consonant in quiet, and the last in aspic (notice that this is a matter of pronunciation, not spelling). We could call this sound /k/, enclosing it in slashes to show that it is a phoneme.

Just like the atom, however, the phoneme can be split up into a number of constituent parts. In the case of English /k/, two such parts are represented in the words king and skip --the /k/ in king is accompanied by a king size puff of breath, while comparatively little extra air is expelled with the /k/ in skip. So it can be said, on the basis of the two words discussed, that the phoneme /k/ in English has at least two phonetic variants, one of which is aspirated (the /k/ in king), and one that is not. These variants could be written [k^h] and [k] respectively, if there is a need to distinguish them.

Of course, it is possible to go much further than this in splitting up the phoneme --in the opinion of some linguists, the concept of the phoneme is itself open to dispute. Certainly, there is a tremendous amount of variation among speakers of a language, and even within the speech of a single individual, in the production of any phoneme or phonetic variant thereof. However, the idea of the phoneme is not hard to grasp, and is very useful to the learner of a language, so in the ensuing discussion of Pangasinan we shall list the various phonemes and their gross constituents, and compare them with the English sounds to which they show greatest affinity.

Pangasinan vowel phonemes

All speakers of Pangasinan recognize four vowel phonemes, which we may symbolize as / a, e, i, o /. Many speakers distinguish a fifth which may be symbolized as /E/ (to separate it from /e/ --they are both normally written with the letter e). Some may distinguish yet another significant sound, /u/, although for most

speakers the letters u and o are used in writing to represent a single unit, /o/, and are not symptomatic of a phonemic distinction.

Vowels are essentially sounds made by allowing air to proceed from the vocal chords through the mouth and emerge into the outside world without being subjected to stoppage or friction at any point along the way. Vowel sounds are given their quality by the position of the tongue in the mouth, which, while not blocking the outflow of air, does significantly determine the course it must take to escape from the mouth. For example, the English word beat contains a vowel sound that is made by placing the tongue quite high up and near the front of the mouth. We can call this sound a 'high front vowel', and symbolize it with the letter /i/. If we compare /i/ with the vowel sound in bet, we find that although the tongue is as far forward in one sound as in the other, it is not as close to the roof of the mouth in the latter as it is in the former. We may therefore call the vowel sound in bet a 'mid front vowel', and symbolize it as /e/ (remembering that we are discussing English vowels at the moment, not those of Pangasinan). If we say bat, we find that the tip of the tongue is still near the front of the mouth, but that the rest of the tongue is even further from the roof of the mouth than it was when we pronounced bet. So bat may be said to have a 'low front vowel', which we will call /æ/.

We have thus established three degrees of height for the tongue, and assigned a vowel sound to each degree. We can do this where 'frontness' of the tongue is concerned, too. Starting again from beat, compare /i/ with the vowel sound in the word just in a sentence like 'he left just a minute ago', where just is said rather quickly and is not stressed at all. This time the tongue is still high in the mouth, but not as far front. So we may call the sound a 'high central vowel' and symbolize it by /i/. If we compare this sound to that of the vowel in hoot, we find that the latter is even further back. In addition, our lips are rounded when we pronounce hoot, but are not rounded when we pronounce beat, bet, bat, and just. Therefore we can say that the sound in hoot, to which the symbol /u/ may be assigned, is, in addition to being a 'high back vowel', also a rounded vowel, and that /i/, /e/, /æ/, and /i/, in addition to their other qualities, are unrounded vowels.

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We can quickly add some more points of reference to those we have already listed. The word luck contains a mid central vowel, say /ə/; father has for its first vowel a low central vowel, say /a/; cot, at least in New England and Received Standard (British) English a low, back, rounded vowel, /o/, whereas home in New England, or the 'slang' gonna (= going to) has a mid back rounded vowel, /o/, in its first syllable. The vowel sound in bit is a little lower than that in beat --we can describe it as lower-high front unrounded, and symbolize it as /I/ --it has a counterpart in look, a lower-high back rounded vowel (i.e. a little lower than /u/ in hoot), which can be represented as /U/.

We are now in a position to examine the vowel sounds of Pangasinan, by comparing them on the basis of tongue height and frontness, and lip rounding, with the English vowels we have been discussing. To do this a chart can be constructed, on which the English vowels with the values we have assigned them may be placed, along with the main variants of the Pangasinan phonemes we have listed. Then each of the Pangasinan phonemes may be discussed in turn.

LIPS	UNROUNDED			ROUNDED
Tongue	Front	Central	Back of Central	Back
HIGH	/i/ [i ₁]	/i/	[e]	/u/ [o ₁]
LOWER HIGH	/I/ [i ₂]		[e]	/U/ [o ₂]
HIGH MID	[E] [i ₃]			[o ₃]
MID	/e/ [E]	/ə/		/o/
LOWER MID			[a ₁]	
LOW	/æ/	/a/ [a ₂]	[a ₃]	/ə/

RELATIVE POSITION OF ENGLISH AND PANGASINAN VOWELS English phonemes enclosed in slashes, e.g. /i/; phonetic variants of Pangasinan phonemes enclosed in square brackets, e.g. [i₁], [i₂], [i₃].

The phoneme /i/.

In Pangasinan, /i/ has three major variants, labelled [i₁], [i₂], and [i₃] respectively in the chart above. Although they use these variants in an orderly way in their speech, most speakers of Pangasinan are not aware that they are different sounds. Thus we can say that [i₁], [i₂] and [i₃] are members of the same significant sound or phoneme, /i/. In writing, this sound is represented by the letter *i* (but see also the discussion on /E/, below).

[i₂], which sounds like the English /I/ in bit, can occur in any position in a word, but is always the sound made when /i/ is neither stressed, nor the last sound in a word, unless the unstressed /i/ occurs before another vowel with no pause in between. There is one important difference between English /I/ and Pangasinan [i₂], as well as between English /U/ and Pangasinan [o₂], its nearest equivalent, and that is that the English vowels /I/ and /U/ are pronounced with the vocal chords relaxed, in contrast with English /i/ and /u/, where the vocal chord are tense --compare the vowel sounds in bit and beat, and those in look and luke, and you will find that the second member of each pair requires the construction of your throat when you pronounce the vowel. In Pangasinan however, this contrast of tenseness with laxity is not inherent in the vowel, as it is in English, but is determined by stress --when the vowel is strongly stressed, it is also tense, when weakly stressed, it is lax so that, unlike their English cousins, the Pangasinan vowels [i₂] and [u₂] may be either tense or lax, as may [i₁] and [o₁] (which correspond to the tense vowels /i/ and /u/ in English). Stress is discussed later in this chapter; it is sufficient to say here that all words with more than one syllable, and also many with only one syllable, have at least one strong stress, which is marked in the examples given in this book, and in some other works, by an acute accent (') over the vowel in the syllable concerned.

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[i₂] is also the form assumed by stressed /i/ when it is followed by two consonants, with no pause interrupting the sequence, or by one consonant followed by a pause. What is meant by 'pause' here is normally the transition from one word to another, but as in rapid speech words are sometimes 'telescoped', it is more accurate to talk about pauses, even though these are, in fact, most often equated with the ends of words.

Words of the type where Pangasinan /i/ is always pronounced as [i₂] are:

<u>iknól</u>	'egg'
<u>inér</u>	'where'
<u>biláy</u>	'life'
<u>pilápil</u>	'irrigation dyke'
<u>baím</u>	'your grandmother'
<u>awít</u>	'bring, carry'
<u>masamít</u>	'sweet'
<u>písta</u>	'fiesta'

[i₁], which is somewhat like English /i/ in beat, occurs most often in stressed syllables, except in the environments mentioned above in connection with [i₂] (i.e. before a final consonant, or before two consonants when no pause intervenes). Although [i₁] is more commonly heard in such stressed syllables, [i₂] may also be freely substituted for it; when /i/ occurs as the last phoneme before pause, it may be pronounced as [i₁], [i₂], or [i₃], whether the syllable is stressed or not (see below).

Words of the type where /i/ is frequently pronounced as [i₁] are:

<u>íba</u>	'companion'
<u>nítan</u>	'located there'
<u>salíta</u>	'speech'

[i₃], which sounds a little like the English /e/ in bet, but also has affinities with /I/ in bit, as the tip of the tongue is closer to the front of the mouth than is the case with English /e/, but not so far forward as with English /I/, may occur only when /i/ is the last phoneme before pause. In this position, however, it may also be replaced by either [i₁] or [i₂] the latter being more likely if the syllable is unstressed, and the former in a stressed syllable.

Words of the type where [i₃] may occur are:

bái 'grandmother' (sometimes written bae)
pónti 'banana' (in some areas pontí)
andí 'no'

There is a fourth variant of /i/ which is not listed in the chart. This is the semivowel /y/, a phoneme in its own right, which replaces unstressed /i/ whenever the latter occurs immediately before another and different vowel. (To save endless repetition, unless the contrary is stated explicitly, it may be assumed by the reader that all positional descriptions like 'final', 'initial', 'followed by two consonants' etc. refer to the context of a single unit (usually identical with a word) bounded by pauses --pauses being a perceptible transition from one word to another, or silence).

Words where /i/ becomes /y/ are typified by the following:

siák 'T' ([syák])
biék 'over, on the other side' ([byék])
diá 'here' ([dyá])
município 'town hall' ([mo₂ni₂ci₂Pyo₃])

To summarize, it may be said that Pangasinan /i/ has the following qualities:

[i₁] (like English /i/ in beat) especially in stressed syllables where it is not followed by a final consonant or by two consonants in sequence, and also finally;

[i₂] (like English /I/ in bit) in any position except where /y/ may replace /i/, and especially in unstressed syllables, and in stressed syllables when followed by two consonants in sequence or by a final consonant;

[i₃] (somewhat like English /e/ in bet) word final only;

/y/ when unstressed and followed by any vowel except another /i/.

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The phoneme /E/.

Pangasinan /E/ is absent from the speech of many native speakers of the language, while very much present in that of many others. For those who do not have /E/, the phoneme /i/ is substituted in those places where /E/ would otherwise occur (with a few additional changes in some cases -this will be returned to below). /E/ is a mid to high-mid front vowel, sounding something like the English /e/ in bet, or a little higher, like the [i3] variant of Pangasinan /i/.

The words in which /E/ may occur are mainly of Spanish origin, and in these /E/ is represented by the letter e. For people who use /i/ instead of /E/ in these environments, further changes may be made -the combination /yE/ for example is likely to become simply /i/, as in fiesta -- /pyÉsta/ to those who use /E/; /písta/ to those who do not. Even people who often use /E/ in their speech may not always do so in words where its Spanish equivalent was originally present, however -- peso 'peso' is usually pronounced, and written, /píso/, even by people who use /E/ consistently elsewhere; veinte 'twenty' is similarly commonly pronounced /baínti/ (where the final /i/ may be [i3], and thus equivalent to /E/); in this case /E/ is transformed into /a/ before /i/ --some speakers, those who do not use /E/ at all, will pronounce this word as /bínti/.

Words in which /E/ is commonly encountered are:

<u>lúnes</u>	'Monday'	
<u>antes</u>	'before'	
<u>fiesta</u>	/pyÉsta/	'fiesta'
<u>viernes</u>	/byÉrnEs/	'Friday'
<u>tres</u>	'three'	

The phoneme /e/.

Pangasinan /e/ is quite different from the sound most commonly associated with the letter e in English, or in Spanish either for that matter. It is more like the vowel sound in look pronounced without rounding the lips. The English sounds nearest to it are (apart from /u/ and /U/) /i/ and /ə/, but neither of these is very like Pangasinan /E/. This sound will probably be the hardest for the English speaker to imitate successfully

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--however, if one were to practice saying English /u/ and /U/ without rounding the lips, the resulting sound would be very close to Pangasinan /e/.

Words in which Pangasinan /e/ appears are:

<u>pegléy</u>	'middle'
<u>táwen</u>	'sky'
<u>siléw</u>	'(artificial) light'
<u>elék</u>	'laugh'
<u>ed</u>	'to, for, at'

The phoneme /a/.

Like /i/, Pangasinan /a/ has three major variants. Of these, one ([a₁]) sounds somewhat like the vowel in English jump, although the Pangasinan sound is made a little lower and further back than its English cousin, while the other two ([a₂], [a₃]) sound much like the English vowel /a/ in father, the main difference between them being that the more commonly encountered of the two ([a₃]) is pronounced with the tongue further back in the mouth than the other, which is very close to its English counterpart.

[a₂] is usually encountered only before /y/, in which environment [a₁] and [a₃] may also occur.

[a₃] occurs initially and finally, and is common in stressed syllables.

[a₁] is most common in unstressed syllables, but may also occur in stressed syllables.

Words in which /a/ commonly takes the form of [a₁] are:

<u>aná</u> k	'child' ([a ₃ ná ₁ k])
<u>maksí</u>	'strong'
<u>lamán</u>	'body'
<u>lampí</u> ng	'diaper'
<u>í</u> bak	'my companion'

[a₂] may occur in words like:

<u>nayná</u> y	'often'
<u>day</u>	'their, by them' + marker -y

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<u>sáray</u>	‘the (pl)’ ([sá3ra2y])
<u>may</u>	‘non-personal subject marker’

[a3] occurs in words like:

<u>íba</u>	‘companion’
<u>limá</u>	‘five’
<u>salíta</u>	‘speech’ ([sa1líta3])
<u>pilápil</u>	‘irrigation ditch’

The phoneme /o/.

Pangasinan /o/ follows almost the same pattern as /i/ as far as its major variants are concerned. Apart from the three forms shown on the chart, there is a fourth, /w/, which replaces /o/ in the same circumstances that /y/ replaces /i/.

[o2], similar to the vowel in English look, is the form of /o/ found especially when /o/ occur in unstressed syllables, or a stressed syllable when followed by a consonant which in turn is followed either by pause or by another consonant. [o2] may also occur wherever [o1] or [o3] are permitted.

[o1], like the vowel in English moon, is found in stressed syllables except when these are followed by a consonant plus pause or a second consonant. It may also occur where [o3] is allowed.

[o3], which is like the /o/ in gonna, is found only when /o/ occurs immediately before pause. (But see also note on /u/, below).

/w/ replaces /o/ when the latter occurs unstressed before another vowel, unless the /o/ is the last phoneme in a root and the following vowel belongs to an affix (e.g. lutoán (lutó ‘cook’ + -án), or is in a root which consists of a consonant, /o/, and a stressed vowel (e.g. duá ‘two’).

Words in which [o1] commonly occurs are:

<u>móling</u>	‘forehead’
<u>menúdo</u>	‘fish dish’ ([mEnú1do3])
<u>súlat</u>	‘letter’

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Words in which [o₂] is encountered are:

<u>losór</u>	‘cup’
<u>aróm</u>	‘some’
<u>tongtóng</u>	‘conversation’

Words in which [o₃] may occur are:

<u>bató</u>	‘stone’
<u>asó</u>	‘dog’
<u>kayó</u>	‘you (plural or respect)’

/w/ replaces /o/ in words like the following:

duég	‘carabao’	(/doég/ becomes [dwég])
suéldo	‘salary’	(/soÉldo/ becomes [swÉldo3])
kuán	‘said’	(/koán/ becomes [kwá1n])

Is there a phoneme /u/?

Some speakers of Pangasinan may consistently distinguish [o₁] from [o₃] in words of Spanish origin, where [o₁] would parallel Spanish /u/, and [o₃] Spanish /o/. Much more commonly, speakers will make this kind of distinction in some words of Spanish origin, and treat the rest as if they were indigenous Pangasinan words, following the rules given above. Thus it is convenient to recognize only /o/ as a significant sound, and note that some of its variants may occur in unexpected places in the speech of some speakers. Thus in the word ócho ‘eight’ [o₃] may appear as the first as well as the last vowel, and in dirósa ‘pink’ [o₃] may occur instead of [o₁] as might be expected.

Orthographically, /o/ is represented by the letters u and o, which are used interchangeably in almost any word in which /o/ occurs --to give one example, /loto/ ‘cook’ may be written luto, loto, lutu, or lotu (the first three versions being very commonly encountered), all representing the same pronunciation.

General features of Pangasinan vowels.

There are a few features common to all Pangasinan vowels which may be mentioned here. All are tense under stress, and relaxed when unstressed (as explained earlier in this section).

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Secondly, when a vowel is followed by another vowel of the same quality (as when /a/ is followed by /a/, /e/ by /e/, /i/ by /i/, etc.) the two vowels may be 'run together' to make one long vowel. Similarly, stressed vowels may be lengthened (i.e. take more time to pronounce), while a vowel at the end of a sentence or phrase (before a major pause) is always lengthened.

One very important difference between English and Pangasinan vowels is that the latter do not lose their quality when unstressed, as do many English vowels. Unstressed syllables are not skipped over quickly in Pangasinan --although the stressed syllables are often lengthened, the vowels in the unstressed syllables are always articulated clearly (even /i/ and /u/ are not partial exceptions to this statement, as their variants /y/ and /w/ have essentially the same phonetic features as the vowels they 'replace').

Like English vowels, Pangasinan vowels in initial position are preceded by a non-phonemic glottal stop (the sound produced by stopping temporarily the passage of air through the throat before articulating an initial vowel, as in oh!) This same glottal stop may also be inserted between two vowels following each in sequence, although it is often absent in such environments depending on the speaker's whim.

Pangasinan semivowels

/y/ and /w/ are often called semivowels because although they have most of the qualities of vowels, they do not form the center of a syllable --that is, they are not directly subject to any kind of stress, whether light or strong (what we have been calling 'unstressed' vowels are vowels which are centers of syllables and not strongly stressed). Thus, while being formed in the same way as true vowels, they are used in the same way as consonants.

/y/ is a high front semivowel, with the tip of the tongue in about the same position as for /i/, but with the part of the tongue near the palate a little higher. This gives rise to a 'palatalizing' effect on consonants followed by /y/, especially /s/, /d/ and /t/, which come to sound like sh in English show, j in English jeep, and ch in English chip respectively in this environment -- thus siák 'I' sounds like /shyák/, diá 'there' sounds like /jyá/, and tió 'uncle' sounds a bit like /chyó/. /y/ becomes 'invisible', or rather 'inaudible' following /i/ at the end of a word, and may

be dropped or retained at will when following /i/ in other environments -- thus e.g. iyakár 'will be moved' may be pronounced with or without the /y/. With certain word roots, an initial /y/ may occur in the speech of some people, but be absent in that of others: akár 'move' is one example of this, alternating with yakár; others are átol 'keep', alternating with yátol, and the grammatical linker ya alternating with a (and -n).

Words containing /y/ are exemplified by bínyag 'baptism', manyógtan 'have a younger child', pagéy 'rice grain', yóyo 'yoyo', say 'the'.

/w/ is a little higher and further back than [o₁]. The combination/ow/ (written uw or ow) may be reduced to /o/ under the same conditions as /iy/ is reduced to /i/. An audible /w/ may be inserted whenever /o/ followed by another vowel is not itself reduced to /w/ - thus, for example luá 'tear' may be pronounced (and sometimes spelled) /lowá/, lútoen 'be cooked' /lótowen/.

Some typical examples of words containing /w/ are salíw 'buy', awít 'carry' walá 'exists', lináwa 'breathe', siléw 'light'.

Apart from the special peculiarities discussed above, /w/ and /y/ play the same role within the word as any of the true consonants.

CONSONANTS

Pangasinan consonant phonemes

Excluding /y/ and /w/, there are thirteen consonant phonemes employed by all speakers of Pangasinan, and a few others which are used by varying numbers of individuals. Of these questionable phonemes, only one, /ch/, is of any special importance.

Unlike vowels, consonants are produced by obstructing the outflow of air from the lungs to the atmosphere, usually somewhere in the mouth. It is the nature and location of the obstruction which gives the various consonants their distinctive quality.

Firstly, the location of the obstruction Pangasinan consonants offer five possibilities in this regard --the air may be obstructed at the lips, the teeth, the alveolar ridge between

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the teeth and the palate, near the velum at the back of the mouth, or right in the throat itself. Similarly, there are five major ways in which the air is obstructed as far as Pangasinan consonants are concerned --it may be stopped altogether, diverted through the nose, trilled, forced through a constricted opening, or allowed to flow around the side of the tongue. Furthermore, the vocal chords may or may not be vibrating while the other activities are taking place. We may summarize these possibilities in a chart, locating the major phonemes on it (ignoring for the moment variations within each phoneme), and then go on to discuss the phonemes individually. For convenience, the last two methods of obstruction mentioned above may be termed fricative and lateral respectively. Sounds made without vibrating the vocal chords are labelled voiceless.

Manner of Obstruction	Location of Obstruction				
	lips	teeth	alveolar	velum	throat
stopped	/b/ */p/	/d/ */t/		/g/ */k/	
nasal	/m/	/n/		/ŋg/	
trilled		/r/			
fricative			*/s/		*/h/
lateral		/l/			

PANGASINAN CONSONANT PHONEMES

(Asterisk indicates voiceless sounds)

Labial Consonants

The three labial consonants /b/, /p/, and /m/ are alike in that, to produce them, the flow of air from the mouth is stopped by momentarily closing both lips.

/b/ is pronounced in much the same way as English b in big. When it occurs finally, /b/ may be unreleased, i.e. the sound is choked off by failing to open the lips to release the stopped air.

Examples of words containing /b/ are: babóy ‘pig’, viérnes (/byírnis/ or /byÉrnEs/) ‘Friday’, báka ‘cows’, sakób ‘cover’, am-balangá ‘red’. It should be noted that Spanish v, retained in the spelling of some words, is generally treated as /b/ by Pangasinan speakers.

/p/ is pronounced like the English p in spit, i.e. it is exactly like /b/, except that the vocal chords are not vibrated. A large puff of breath does not accompany the release of this phoneme. Just as with /b/, /p/ may be unreleased when it occurs at the end of a word.

Some words containing /p/ are: polís ‘policeman’, pawíl ‘return’, fiésta (/pyÉsta/ or /písta/) ‘fiesta’, plangána ‘wash tub’, kapót ‘lid’, lampíng ‘diaper’, sangpót ‘end’, gálip ‘to slice’. Spanish f is generally treated as /p/ by Pangasinan speakers, as in the example above.

/m/, the nasal member of this group, is formed and pronounced in the same way as English m in moon. It has no special positional variations.

Examples illustrating /m/ are: masibá ‘voracious’, máma ‘sir’, amá ‘father’, amtá ‘know’, aróm ‘other’.

Dental Consonants

The dental consonants /d/, /t/, /n/, /r/, and /l/ share the common attribute of being formed with the tip of the tongue placed close to the back of the upper teeth.

/d/ originally had two main variants, one corresponding to the ‘modern’ /d/ described here, and the other to /r/ --the latter occurring only between vowels or, freely replaceable by the present /d/, at the end of a word. The introduction of many words into the language where /r/ occurs in other positions has necessitated the recognition of this sound as a phoneme separate from /d/, but, nevertheless, /d/ remains very rare intervocalically, and in most Pangasinan words with initial /d/ that sound is replaced by /r/ if a prefix ending in a vowel is added to the word -thus dabók ‘dust’ but marabók ‘dusty’, dagém ‘wind’, maragém ‘windy’, dásal ‘pray’, mandarásal ‘is praying’.

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Pangasinan /d/ differs from English d as in dug in that the tongue always touches the teeth when it is articulated -- the way English /d/ is formed in dig is quite close to its Pangasinan counterpart. Pangasinan /d/, like /p/ and /b/, may be unreleased in final position.

Some further examples of words containing /d/ are: diá 'here' (see notes on /y/ above), móda 'fashionable', itdán 'will be given for', tedtér 'chop up', andí 'no'.

/r/ occurs in indigenous words as an offshoot of /d/, and also in many 'foreign' words - e.g. pasiár 'to go around visiting', rádio 'radio', prísio (also présio /prísyo/ or /prÉsyo/) 'price', mádre (/mádrE/ or /mádrí/) 'nun'. /r/ is articulated in about the same place as /d/, but the air is not stopped --it is instead interrupted briefly by tapping the tongue against the back of the upper teeth --once only when /r/ is between vowels, and several times in very quick succession (to make a trill) in other environments. This sound will require a great deal of practice for many speakers of English, especially the trilled variant.

/t/ is the voiceless counterpart of Pangasinan /d/. It resembles English t in stick, being pronounced with the tongue close to the back of the upper teeth, and without aspiration. As with the other phonemes requiring a complete stoppage of the passage of air from the mouth, it may be unreleased in final position. /t/ may also be replaced by the glottal stop (mentioned above in the discussion of Pangasinan vowels) when it is in a syllable final position and followed by another consonant, unless a major pause (e.g. the end of a sentence) intervenes.

Some words containing /t/ are: tayó 'we all', antó 'what?', nónot 'think', tátay 'father'.

/n/ is similar to English /n/ knee. No matter what environment it is in, Pangasinan /n/ is always articulated with the tongue tip near the upper teeth. Some words containing /n/ are nánay 'mother', manók 'chicken', pogón 'oven', andekét 'black', inmogíp 'slept', nannengnéng 'saw'.

/l/ is somewhat like English l in leap -- it is pronounced with the tip of the tongue actually touching the upper teeth, and the blade raised towards the hard palate, so that the air escapes around the sides. When it occurs in final position, /l/ may sound like /d/ transformed into /l/ - i.e. /dl/ said with the first sound blended with the second.

Words containing /l/ are: lotó ‘cook’, lábi ‘night’, relléno (/rElyÉno/) ‘a type of fish dish’, míla ‘mutually go’, kasál ‘marriage’, bánsal ‘wedding reception’, álmo ‘find’. Note that the sequence ll in words of Spanish origin is interpreted phonemically as /ly/, as in the above example.

Alveolar consonant

/s/ is formed by raising the blade of the tongue so that the sides are close to the alveolar ridge behind the upper teeth; the tip of the tongue ends up behind the bottom teeth --in other words, Pangasinan and English /s/ are formed in much the same way. Words containing this phoneme are siká ‘you’, siák ‘I’ (see notes on /y/ --/s/ here becomes palatalized as the blade of the tongue moves back a little before /y/), rósas ‘flower’, sapsáp ‘kind of fish’, pespés ‘to squeeze’.

Velar consonants

The velar consonants /g/, /k/ and /ŋg/ all require the blockage of air through the back of the tongue’s coming into contact with the velum (soft palate).

/g/ involves the vibration of the vocal chords and the complete stoppage of the flow of air before it’s released - it is quite close to the sound of g in English goat. Like other ‘stops’ (/p,b,t,/ etc.), it may be unreleased at the end of a word. Words containing /g/ are: gátas ‘milk’, maogés ‘bad’, pátnag ‘recognize’, togtóg ‘play a musical instrument’, asiŋgger ‘close’ (ŋg represents a single phoneme, described below --ŋgg consists of /ŋg/ plus /g/).

/k/ is the voiceless counterpart of /g/; it is articulated like the English /k/ in coat, but without the accompanying aspiration -no more breath is released than is the case with /g/. The nearest English sound to Pangasinan /k/ then is the variant of English /k/ in words like scope.

Pangasinan /k/ has three other variants which may occur in certain positions in which the normal sound just described may also occur. Like other stops, it may be unreleased in final position. Like /t/, it may be replaced by a glottal stop when it occurs as the last phoneme in a syllable followed by another syllable beginning with a consonant, with no major pause intervening. Furthermore, when /k/ occurs between vowels, it may

be transformed into a fricative sound by failing to block off all the air; this is particularly likely to happen where several /k/'s occur between vowels in a sequence, e.g. in the word makakakansi 'feels like singing, is inclined to sing', where the first two /k/'s will often flow into the vowels which follow them.

/k/ is found in words like the following: siñgko (also cinco) 'five', kánen 'food', akár 'walk, move', koskós 'shred', anák 'child', maksíl 'strong', maka-kaakís 'inclined to cry'.

/ñg/ is the nasal member of this group, and is formed in the same way as English ng? in song. It is found as the first phoneme in many Pangasinan words, which makes it a problem sound for many speakers of English (as English /ng/ never occurs in this environment). One way to practice initial /ñg/ is to say English words with intervocalic /ng/, like singing, singer, and try to drop the preceding phonemes in stages until what is left begins with /ng/ - e.g. singing - inging - nging, singer - inger - nger. In technical works, /ñg/ is often written /ŋ/, but in normal written Pangasinan ng or ñg (sometimes also nǵ) is used to symbolize this sound. ñg will be used throughout this book, enabling /ñg/ to be distinguished easily from /n/ plus /g/, and at the same time allowing the orthography used here to remain within the bounds of conventional usage.

Words containing /ñg/ are typified by: ñgárem 'afternoon', mañgán 'will eat', siñgsiñg 'ring', mañgga 'mango', ñgasñgas 'eat corn etc. without other food'.

Glottal consonant

/h/ is formed by constricting the glottis in the throat; the vocal chords are not vibrated, so, like /s,p,t, and k/ it is a voiceless sound. It is like the English h in hope, and does not occur as the final phoneme in a word. This sound is a comparative newcomer to Pangasinan, and is found chiefly in words of Spanish origin (where it is commonly written j), as well as a few words introduced from English and from other Philippine languages (in these words it is usually written with the letter h).

Words containing /h/ (are juéves (/hwÉbEs/ or /hwíbis/) 'Thursday', cajón (also kahón) 'box', híbe 'kind of shrimp', háyskol 'high school', viáje (/byáhE/ or /byáhi/) 'journey'.

Consonant combinations

There are a few factors bearing on the possible combinations of consonants in Pangasinan which the learner needs to be aware of. These concern initial consonant clusters, some medial consonant clusters (i.e. groups of consonants occurring in the middle of a word), and agreement of nasals with following consonants, especially stops.

Initial consonant clusters and phonemic /ch/.

In general, Pangasinan speakers tend to avoid beginning a word with more than one consonant. Even borrowed words are often modified to break up such combinations or reduce them to a single phoneme. Thus plancha 'iron' often becomes /palancha/, stámbay 'ne'er do well' (from English 'stand by') /is-tambay/, and so on.

To return to the word plancha, it will also be noted that there is an orthographic combination ch in this word, which represents a single phoneme in both English and Spanish. It also represents a single phoneme in the speech of many Pangasinan speakers, articulated either by placing the blade of the tongue about mid way between the locations of English /t/ and /sh/, and stopping the flow of air momentarily, or by starting with /t/ and very quickly bringing the blade of the tongue up near the alveolar ridge to make /s/. To such speakers this sound is a unit, and may be represented by the combination of letters /ch/ which are normally used in writing. To other speakers, however, ch is a sequence of two phonemes, /t/ and /s/, and for them a word like plancha would be phonemically /palantsa/ or /plantsa/.

In initial position, there are three possibilities open where ch is concerned, and different speakers will tend to make different choices in this regard. Some will use the /ch/ sound, thus pronouncing chá 'tea' as /cha/ and chinélas 'slippers' /chinÉlas/ (some may replace /E/ with /i/, but that is a secondary consideration). Others will use the combination /ts/ (/t/ plus /s/), giving us /tsá/ and /tsinÉlas/. Many speakers who regularly use /ts/ where /ch/ may be found will, however, reduce /ts/ to /s/ when the combination appears, or rather could appear, initially, giving rise to the forms /sá/ and /sinílas/.

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Considerable variations can therefore be expected in the handling of potentially initial consonant clusters by different individuals. (See the section on syllabification for discussion of initial consonant clusters).

Medial clusters

Groups of consonants occurring in the middle of a word do not present many problems, although they have relevance in determining the boundaries of syllables (discussed in the next section), and can affect the form taken by several phonemes (as noted in relation to the phonemes concerned). Certain clustering, however, tend to lead to the replacement of one phoneme by another, especially in the case of nasals preceding stops (discussed separately below). In a few words, the medial combination /ps/ is transformed to /ks/ e.g. naksél 'satisfied with food' (from pesél), naksít 'shattered' (from pisít). Furthermore, in indigenous Pangasinan words /r/ will become /d/ if it occurs in a cluster - e.g. itdán 'be given for' (from itér).

Agreement of nasals with following consonants.

There is a strong tendency in Pangasinan speech for nasals to conform to the point of articulation of following consonants, especially when the latter is a stop. Thus the nasal preceding a labial consonant is likely to be /m/, that preceding a dental or alveolar consonant will usually be /n/, and /ŋg/ is the nasal most likely to precede a velar consonant. There are some notable exceptions to this general principle, even where stops are involved (e.g. amtá 'know', sañgpót 'end'), although even these are 'regularized' (e.g. to antá and sampót) by some speakers.

Most affected by this are various prefixes ending in /n/. In slow speech, the /n/ is likely to be retained, but in normal to rapid speech it will undergo the changes described above; thus manbása (man- 'future, active, transitive' plus bása 'read') will become /mambása/ in rapid speech, onpawíl (on- 'future, neutral' pawíl 'return') may become /ompawíl/, mangáwa (man- plus gawá 'work') becomes /mañggáwa/, inkianák 'birthday' may become /iñgkianák/. These changes are only haphazardly reflected in writing. Even the infix -inm- (the past form of on-) may appear as /-imm-/ in some peoples's speech, as in /pimmawíl/ for pinmawíl.

Nasal Replacement

Certain prefixes in Pangasinan replace the consonant immediately following them by a corresponding nasal, according to the principles outlined above. This replacement even applies to the glottal stop preceding an initial vowel (which doesn't count in the agreement process just described -it simply disappears, so that, e.g. maN- plus amés 'bathe' becomes simply /manámes/). The glottal stop, perhaps because it was once more important in Pangasinan phonology than it is today, is treated as a velar, and thus replaced by a velar nasal.

Some examples of this process of nasal replacement follow --the replacive part of the prefix is represented by N:

<u>maN-</u>	+ <u>kansión</u>	= <u>mañgansión</u>
<u>maN-</u>	+ <u>salíw</u>	= <u>manalíw</u>
<u>maN-</u>	+ <u>paltóg</u>	= <u>mamaltóg</u>
<u>paN-</u>	+ <u>táwag</u>	= <u>panáwag</u>
<u>aN-</u>	+ <u>alá</u>	= <u>añgalá</u>
<u>maN-</u>	+ <u>píso</u>	= <u>mamíso</u>
<u>paN-...-án</u>	+ <u>fiésta</u>	= <u>pamiéstaán</u>
<u>aN-</u>	+ <u>tálo</u>	= <u>análo</u>
<u>maN-</u>	+ <u>salapí</u>	= <u>manalapí</u>
<u>inpaN-</u>	+ <u>alá</u>	= <u>inpañgalá</u>

STRESS AND SYLLABIFICATION

A syllable in Pangasinan consists of a vowel, either alone or surrounded by a finite number of consonants, and is affected by a single stress. We may call the vowel the nucleus of the syllable, and the attending consonants, if any, may be referred to as the periphery. The periphery of the syllable may consist of a single final consonant and/or an initial consonant or consonant cluster.

Initial consonant clusters

Only 25 (or 26 if /ts/ is also included) combinations of consonants are possible in syllable initial position in Pangasinan. Each of these combinations consists of two members, the first of which may be any of the phonemes /b, p, t, d, l, s, g, k, h/, and the second drawn from /r, 1, y, w/, (and for some speakers, /s/). Not all the members of each set are compatible with all those

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from the other, however, so that the actual number of combinations realized is less than that mathematically possible. The permitted combinations are shown on the chart.

Second member	First member								
	b	p	t	d	l	s	g	k	h
r	+	+	+	+			+	+	
l	+	+					+	+	
s			*						
y	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	
w	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+

SYLLABLE INITIAL CONSONANT CLUSTERS

+ indicates permissible cluster

* indicates permitted by some speakers

Syllable types

There are six syllable types in Pangasinan, each of which may be illustrated by a monosyllabic word:

- (1) V[owel] a 'linker'
- (2) C[onsonant] V ta 'because'
- (3) CCV diá /dya/ 'here'
- (4) VC ed 'to, at'
- (5) CVC met 'also'
- (6) CCVC trés 'three'

Syllabification within the word

There are four general principles governing the syllabification of Pangasinan words, after taking into account that the composition of a syllable is limited to the six combinations illustrated above.

(a) A single initial or intervocalic consonant belongs to the syllable of the vowel which follows it, as does an initial consonant cluster.

(b) When two consonants which may not form an initial cluster, or a consonant followed by a potential initial consonant cluster occur intervocalically, the first consonant belongs to the syllable of the preceding vowel, and the remaining consonant or consonants form (part of) the periphery of the syllable of the vowel following.

(c) When a potential initial cluster occurs intervocalically, the consonants may separately become part of the syllable of the vowel to which each is contiguous, or the first consonant may be doubled to form the final element of the preceding syllable and the first element of that following.

(d) When two identical vowels occur contiguously, they are sometimes combined to form one long vowel, the nucleus of a single syllable.

These principles are illustrated below:

makakaurán 'threatening rain' = ma-ka-ka-u-ran

ambetél 'cold' = am-be-tel

cristiáno /kristyáno/ 'Christian' = kris-tyá-no

wadiá /wadyá/ 'is here' = wad-yá or wad-dyá

loób 'within' = lo-ób or lób

In rapid speech, all these factors may operate across word boundaries as well as within single words.

Stress

In isolation, all 'full' words in Pangasinan, as well as many grammatical markers, have at least one strongly stressed syllable (in most cases, only one). The remaining syllables may be either moderately or weakly stressed, depending on the interplay of a number of factors, the most important of which are, it is hoped, among those mentioned here.

Firstly, syllables which end in a final consonant automatically attract a moderate stress (which we may symbolize here with a grave accent), so that the difference between the strongly stressed syllable and its neighbor in a word like nátàn 'now' is less noticeable than in a word like bása 'read'.

Secondly, there is a tendency for every alternate syllable preceding or following a strongly stressed syllable to attract medium stress, the stress pattern on a word like kabuásán /kab-wasán/ 'morning' is thus kàbuásán, while that on mansásalita 'is speaking' is mansásalita. These two tendencies (radiation of stress and stress on a closed syllable) may neutralize each other in a word like Pangasinán /panggasinán/, which is stressed pàng-gasinan (syllabification: pàng-ga-si-nán).

Certain affixes complicate the picture by either attracting or repelling strong stress in contiguous syllables. Chief among these are the prefix man- 'incomplete, active, transitive', which is followed by a strongly stressed syllable, and -en 'incomplete, passive', which automatically has a moderate stress, and is normally preceded by a weakly stressed syllable (there are, however, a few word roots which resist the demands of these affixes). Thus man- plus amés 'bathe' becomes manámes (manámès) in contrast to the past form nanamés (nànamés), while lutó 'cook' plus -en becomes lútoen (lútoèn).

Added to all these factors is the strong tendency in Pangasinan speech to achieve a regular alternation of weakly and strongly stressed syllables, and the automatic application of strong stress to a syllable before a significant pause. The alternating stress is achieved by collapsing like vowels into each other, removing stress altogether from /o/ and /i/ when they are followed by a vowel, (thus converting them into /w/ and /y/ respectively) and shifting the stress on some words. Such patterning is not consistent, of course, but it is common enough to confuse any learner who expects to find stresses observed in isolated words to be preserved in the context of a sentence. One commonplace example of this is the phrase ándi báli 'it doesn't matter', where the stress on andí 'no' is regularly displaced for the sake of euphony. Similarly, a question like tagá inér so amígom? 'where is your friend from?' may be realized as /tagá inér swamígom?/, while ákin et kinetkét mo ak? 'why did you bite me?' is very likely to appear as /ákin ét kinétket mwák?/.

Stress contrasts

Many words in Pangasinan are differentiated only by the placement of the strong stress on the root. Although the factors mentioned above sometimes conspire to obscure such contrast, the differences are observable and important in most environ-

ments in which the words (or, more properly, word roots) concerned may be found. Some examples of words identical in form except for the placement of the major stress follow:

<u>láki</u>	'grandfather'	cf. <u>lakí</u>	'male'
<u>bása</u>	'read'	cf. <u>basá</u>	'wet'
<u>óras</u>	'time'	cf. <u>orás</u>	'wash'
<u>sáli</u>	'try'	cf. <u>salí</u>	'foot'
<u>bálo</u>	'new'	cf. <u>baló</u>	'widow'
<u>tálo</u>	'defeat'	cf. <u>taló</u>	'three'
<u>níman</u>	'be there'	cf. <u>nimán</u>	'before'
<u>pára</u>	'equal'	cf. <u>pará</u>	'prepare'
<u>ámo</u>	'master'	cf. <u>amó</u>	'isn't it?'
<u>anáak</u>	'child'	cf. <u>ának</u>	'(many) children'
<u>naáwat</u>	'will receive'	cf. <u>naawát</u>	'received'

INTONATION

Intonation patterns are probably the major phonological stumbling blocks for most people learning a new language. It is also a difficult if not impossible task to describe such patterns adequately in writing without confusing the general reader (presuming that the linguist himself is not confused!). What follows here, therefore, is a rather cursory treatment of Pangasinan intonation. Its aim is simply to state the general principles and illustrate these with a few examples from everyday speech. Hopefully, once he is aware of the potentialities in this regard, the student will be in a better position to perceive, imitate, and to use in appropriate contexts the intonational variations he hears in the speech of the Pangasinan speakers with whom he is in contact.

One very good way of capturing intonation patterns which one would like to practice is to persuade a friend to record appropriate sentences or snatches of conversation. The student can then play these back to himself and imitate them at his leisure. It is usually wise to limit the number of repetitions of such utterances on the part of one's informant to one or two of each kind at any given time (hence the value of the tape recorder). It is extremely difficult for most people, except for trained actors or elocutionists, to repeat the same sentence

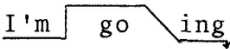
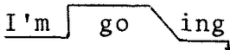
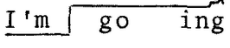
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over and over again as a model and remain consistent in regard to intonation. Try it yourself with any English sentence, and see if you can avoid inconsistency and confusion!

Characteristics of intonation patterns

Intonation patterns involve meaningful variations in pitch which usually operate over an entire phrase or sentence. Even when the consonants, vowels, and stress patterns remain unchanged, the meaning of such a sequence of sounds may be appreciably altered by a change in intonation pattern. Take for example the simple English sentence I'm going. As a neutral statement, it would be spoken with a medium pitch riding slightly on the first syllable of going but dropping down rapidly during the articulation of the rest of the word. The intonation accompanying this interpretation of I'm going could be described as medium - high - low (falling). If one were irritated about having been asked repeatedly to fetch something, the same sentence might be uttered with a much higher rise in pitch on go-, again falling rapidly, giving a medium - very high -low (falling) pitch sequence. If one had been expecting to remain behind, one might ask I'm going? ('I'm going after all?'), starting off as in the neutral statement, but sustaining the high pitch and even allowing the pitch to rise slightly at the end of the sentence, producing a sequence medium -high -high (rising).

There are various ways in which the pitch changes described above can be symbolized, but two methods have been widely adopted by linguists and language teachers. One method is to represent the pitch changes by means of numbers placed at appropriate points in the transcription of the sentence. If numbers are used, arrows pointing upward, downward, or sideways are used to indicate rising, falling, or sustained pitch at the end of a pitch sequence in languages like English where this is relevant. The three renditions of I'm going discussed in the previous paragraph may be used here to illustrate these transcription systems (the numeral 1 represents the lowest level of pitch; 2, 3, 4, successively higher levels):

(neutral)	2I'm	3going ¹	I'm 
(irritation)	2I'm	4going ¹	I'm 
(surprise)	2I'm	3going ³	I'm 

Critical points

Within the area covered by an intonation pattern (which will be referred to here as a 'phrase', although it may range from a single word to a moderately long sentence) there are certain points where changes in pitch are 'critical', i.e. at these points a change in pitch is significant for the phrase as a whole, whereas slight variations between these points may have no special importance. In English there seem to be three such critical points --the first syllable of the phrase, the syllable on which the major stress occurs, and the end of the phrase. The phrase usually starts off on a sustained pitch, which rises on the stressed syllable, and then falls away (or is sustained) until the end of the phrase, where it may continue to fall, or else rise or simply taper off without falling or rising (in the latter case, there is an indication that the sentence is not yet complete). These critical points are marked in the examples above.

Pangasinan, while having four major levels of pitch, like English, differs considerably in that there are four critical points, and the pitch is generally retained throughout the syllable. It does not significantly fall away or rise at the end of the phrase, as is the case with English. Thus we may mark intonation patterns in Pangasinan with numbers alone, and not worry about arrows at the end of each phrase.

The critical points of the phrase in Pangasinan are the beginning of the phrase, the beginning of the second to last syllable, and the beginning and end of the last syllable. This means, of course, that there may be a falling or rising intonation on the last syllable. However in Pangasinan such a fall or rise is confined to the syllable and to the normal intonation levels; it does not noticeably continue beyond these points, as is the case with English, and a final rising, falling, or sustained pitch does not have a function independent of the preceding intonational features (so that a final intonation sequence mid-mid would always be 'sustained' in Pangasinan, whereas in English we could have mid-mid (rising), as in one of the interpretations of 'I'm going', mid-mid (sustained), mid-mid (falling), and so on). Another important difference between English and Pangasinan intonation patterns is that English intonation is partly determined by where the major stress falls in the phrase -- thus if 'I' in 'I'm going' is emphasized, only two critical points remain, as the beginning of the phrase is also the location of the stressed syllable. Pangasinan does not have this kind of stress system.

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Except for the extra stress on the last syllable of the phrase, stress is placed on individual words but none is selected for major emphasis. One can thus determine where the critical points for intonation in a Pangasinan sentence will be simply by counting syllables. This is not possible in English.

The critical points in a Pangasinan phrase may be illustrated with a question and answer which will fall within the experience of most students of the language:

² <u>makasalíta</u>	<u>kay</u>	<u>Panga</u> ² <u>si</u> ³ <u>nán</u> ³ ?
can speak	you + mkr	...
'Can you speak Pangasinan?'		

² <u>daisét</u>	² <u>la</u> ³ <u>bát</u> ²
little	only
'Just a little.'	

Relativity of pitch.

Before leaving the more abstract side of this discussion, it perhaps should be made clear that in speaking of pitch being high or low, and of intonation rising or falling, the reference point is always the individual speaker. There is no absolute pitch level involved; thus a basso profundo's 'very high' pitch may be several octaves below that of a soprano's low pitch. Pitch levels are thus norms related to the quality of each speaker's voice. It is therefore impossible to tell what pitch level is being used on any particular syllable until one has heard the speaker utter a few sentences. One's ear very quickly attunes itself to the range of other speakers when one is a native speaker of the language concerned. The student of a new language must, however, learn to perceive relative differences and ignore irrelevant details --this facility will develop steadily as one is increasingly exposed to the language concerned and is able to establish a few basic points of reference. It is, however, unlikely to develop fully without some conscious effort on the part of the learner.

Some basic Pangasinan intonation patterns

Since there are four places in a phrase where the intonation may change to any one of four significant pitch levels, there are 256 mathematically possible different intonation patterns in Pangasinan. Of course, it is likely that many possible combinations do not occur, but if the possibility of breaking up a sentence into a sequence of phrases, each with its own intonation pattern, is taken into consideration, it is clear that one can expect considerable variation in the intonation patterns employed in any sequence of speech lasting for more than a few minutes, and especially in an extended conversation.

The intonation pattern used, and how many sets of such patterns will be employed in a single sentence, is dependent partly on the speaker, and partly on the circumstances surrounding the utterance (is the sentence spoken matter-of-factly, excitedly, etc.). The examples given here illustrate how a native speaker might make a particular kind of statement, or ask a particular kind of question, in a certain context. This does no more than scratch the surface as far as the study of intonation patterns in Pangasinan is concerned. However, even this small start should be of some help to the interested student who may then go further on his own.

A common intonation pattern in Pangasinan consists of the series of pitch levels 2233, i.e. an even tone, raised to high on the last syllable:

² <u>marabók</u>	<u>diád</u>	<u>Ba²yam³báng³</u>
dusty	here at	Bayambang
'It's dusty in Bayambang'		

This pattern is often used in simple equational statements, like that above and, e.g.:

² <u>maéstro</u>	<u>si</u>	<u>máma</u>	² <u>Péd³ro³</u>
teacher	mkr	Mr.	Peter
'Pedro is a teacher'			

The same statement can be used as a question, with changes in the intonation pattern to signal the change in meaning, as in:

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²marabók diád Ba³yam³bang² ?
 ‘Is it dusty in Bayambang?’

--a question promoted by simple curiosity, or:

²marabók diád Ba³yam³bang⁴ ?
 ‘Is it [really] dusty in Bayambang?’

--where the speaker is expressing surprise at the thought that his question might be answered affirmatively. Both questions involve a transition from one pitch level to another on the last syllable. This is not unavoidable, however, as it is also possible to alter the statement intonation by simply raising the pitch level on the penultimate syllable to 4 (very high), as in:

²maéstro si máma ⁴Péd³ro³ ?
 ‘Is Pedro a teacher?’

A neutral reply to such questions is likely to have an even intonation falling on the last syllable:

²on³ # ²mara²bók ²diá¹
 ‘Yes. It’s dusty there.’

(Note that on ‘yes’ is accompanied by rising intonation.)

The 2233 pattern may also be used in questions, especially if there is a ‘question word’ (e.g. ta, ey) in final position:

²turísta ka ³ta³?
 tourist you (question)
 ‘Are you a tourist?’

Sometimes a question may be asked in a high pitch level, which falls and rises again on the last syllable:

³kapigáy in³sa²bím³?
 when + mkr was --arrived + by you
 ‘When did you arrive?’

If the reply takes the form of a complete sentence, it will often be broken into two intonation spans:

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<u>3_{sinma}3_{bí}</u>	<u>2_{ak}2</u>	#	<u>2_{nen}</u>	<u>símbay</u>
did-arrive	I		on	Sunday + mkr

3_{ngá}2_{rem}2
afternoon
'I arrived on Sunday afternoon'

The second phrase in the last example shows the pitch sequence 2322, which is also frequently encountered in Pangasinan speech. It is not limited to replies to questions, however, as the following example shows:

²Amerikáno ³ka²yo²
American you (respectful or plural)
'Are you an American?'

The same intonation may be incorporated in the reply:

<u>2_{an}3_{dí}3</u>	#	<u>2_{tagá}</u>	<u>Alemán³ia</u>	<u>2_{ak}2</u>
no		from	Germany	I
'No, I'm a German.'				

(andí 'no', like on, is most often accompanied by a change from a lower to a higher pitch.)

Some other examples of this pattern are:

<u>2maóng</u>	<u>so</u>	<u>panana</u> ³ <u>li</u> ² <u>tam</u> ²
good	mkr	way of speaking + your
'You speak well'		

²bakasyón ³yo ²la²?
vacation your already
'Are you on vacation already?'

If the speaker was surprised that the person spoken to was on vacation, however, the above question would be asked with a change in intonation pattern --the high pitch on the penultimate syllable would be carried into the final syllable and raised one step higher:

$${}^2\text{bakasyon} \qquad {}^3\text{yo} \qquad {}^3\text{la}^4 ?$$

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‘You’re on vacation already!?’

The mirror image of the 2322 intonation is 3233, as in:

³ <u>inér</u>	<u>so</u>	<u>lá</u> ² <u>en</u>	³ <u>mo</u> ³ ?
where	mkr	will be gone	by you
‘Where are you going?’			

A suitable reply to this question, involving two intonation spans, would be:

³ <u>ón</u> ³ <u>la</u>	⁴ <u>ak</u> ⁴	# ² <u>dimád</u>	<u>tin</u> ³ <u>dá</u> ² <u>an</u> ²
will go	I	there at	market
‘I’m going to the market.’			

In this reply, there is a slight stress on the fact that it is the speaker who is going to the market. A completely neutral reply might feature the 3322 intonation, previously illustrated in a similar situation, on the first intonation span in the sentence:

³ <u>ón</u> ³ <u>la</u>	² <u>ak</u> ²	# ² <u>dimád</u>	<u>tin</u> ³ <u>dá</u> ² <u>an</u> ²
---	-------------------------------------	-----------------------------	---

The question prompting this answer could also be asked with a higher, rather than lower, pitch on the penultimate syllable. Such a pattern would give more emphasis to the action than the actor:

³ <u>inér</u>	<u>so</u>	<u>lá</u> ⁴ <u>en</u>	³ <u>mo</u> ³ ?
‘Where	are	you	going?’

The reply itself can be used as the basis of a question, using the 2322 pattern for the entire sentence:

² <u>ón</u> <u>la</u>	<u>ka</u>	<u>dimád</u>	<u>tin</u> ³ <u>da</u> ² <u>an</u> ² ?
‘Are	you	going to	market?’

The 3233 intonation encountered in the first version of inér so láen mo? may also occur in replies to questions; for example, the question makasalíta kay Pangasinán? ‘can you speak Pangasinan’ might be answered:

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²On³ # ³bálet aliwán ²ma³óng³
 Yes but not + lnk good
 'Yes, but not well.'

A sympathetic listener might counter the last statement with:

²andi báli ta sinálim so
 no impot because was-tried+by you mkr

na³na¹ral¹
 did-learn
 'It doesn't matter because you have been trying to learn.'

--this 2311 intonation may be regarded as an emphatic variant of the 2322 pattern, often used to convey some kind of sympathy encouragement.

Another variant of the 2322 pattern simply involves the retention of the high pitch until the end of the sentence (i.e. 2333):

²kapi³gán so iakár to may
 when + lnk mkr will be moved by it mkr

³jeep ³diá³ !
 jeep here
 'When will the jeep get here?'

A question such as that above will almost invariably obtain a non-committal reply, e.g.:

²naáni se³gu²ro²
 later on probably
 'In a little while.'

A reply involving the desires or interests of the person being questioned is likely to involve greater use of the higher levels of pitch. For example, the question:

³antón ³gá²tas² # ²so labáy
 what + lnk milk mkr wanted

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²so ³ey³ ?
by you eh
'What [kind of] milk would you like?'

is likely to elicit a reponse comparable with:

³ <u>say</u>	<u>Alpine</u>	³ <u>ko</u> ⁴ <u>món</u> ⁴
the	Alpine	hopefully
'Alpine, if you have any.'		

Embarrassment, like surprise and some kinds of self interest, also often results in the employment of an intonation span, or series thereof, with a predominance of high pitch segments. A sari-sari store owner caught without the brand of milk his suki (favored customer) wants might, for example, reply to the preceding statement thus:

³ay³ # ³anggapóy Alpine a láko
 oh not existing + mkr ... lnk stock

mi ⁴ná³tan³
 our now
 'Oh, we're out of Alpine at present.'

ORTHOGRAPHY

In general, Pangasinan is written in what English speakers would regard as a phonetic (=phonemic) orthography. Punctuation is the same as in English, except that the use of capital letters follows the Spanish convention whereby capitalization is confined almost exclusively to proper names, placenames, and the first word in a sentence. Except as noted below, the symbol used to represent a phoneme is identical with that used in the description of the vowels and consonants given earlier.

/E/ is represented by the letter e. Some speakers, who do not make the distinction between /E/ and /i/, may occasionally write /E/ as i in certain words to bring the spelling in line with their pronunciation, e.g. sinilas for chinélas 'slippers'.

/a/ and /e/ are written a and e respectively.

/i/ is written i; at the end of a word it may occasionally be written e -- e.g. Ibáli, Ibále 'Manila', bái, báe, 'grandmother'.

/o/ is written o or u, almost at random. Words of Spanish origin are often spelled more consistently, but by no means invariably so.

/w/ is written w in most cases; some writers sporadically use o in certain words, e.g. bitúoen for bitúwen /bitúen/ 'star' (See also comment on /y/ below).

/y/ is generally written y, except where it is the result of the loss of syllabic status of unstressed /i/ in words like diá /dya/ 'here'. Similarly non-syllabic /o/ (=w/) is generally written u, e.g. duég /dwég/ 'carabao'.

/d, l, m, n, r, t/ are written with the same symbols, i.e. d, l, m, n, r, and t respectively (but see notes on /ly/ and /ny/).

/ch/ (which may also be /ts/) is written ch by most writers of the older generation, with other people fluctuating, sometimes at random, between ts and ch. Thus /kuchilyo/ may be spelled kutsilyo, kuchilyo, kuchillo or cuchillo, depending on the writer. The word /achí/ or /atsí/ 'older woman of same generation as speaker' is often spelt atchí.

/g/ is generally spelled g, occasionally gu before e or i, especially in words of Spanish origin, e.g. guisádo, gisádo 'sauteed'.

/h/ is spelled h or j; the latter is especially common in words of Spanish origin, e.g. mantiquilla, mantikilya 'butter', cajón, kahón 'box', but also sometimes in indigenous words, e.g. ac, ak 'T'. Also in words of Spanish origin, g may represent /h/ before /E/ or /i/, e.g. gigánte/higántE/ 'giant', agénte /ahEntE/ 'agent'.

/ly/ is often spelled ll, e.g. llave/lyábi/ 'key'.

/ny/ is occasionally spelled ñ, e.g. Dóña /dónya/ (honorific title).

/ñg/ is written ng or ñg; sometimes (before g or k) simply n, as in Pangasinan (/Pañggasinán/). Some writers use ñg between vowels, and ng elsewhere.

/p/ and /b/ are often represented by f and v respectively in words whose Spanish spelling contained the latter symbols, e.g. fiesta /pyEsta/ 'fiesta', viérnes /byErnEs/ 'Friday'.

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/s/ is represented by s, and also by c before i and e, or z, in words of Spanish origin, e.g. pláza, plása 'plaza', cocína /kosína/ 'kitchen'.

Stress is marked only sporadically by most writers, usually on words where a possibility of misunderstanding might otherwise arise (e.g. láki 'grandfather', lakí 'male, boy'). Other writers tend to mark stress only when it falls on a syllable other than the final syllable of the word, while yet others may mark it only in that position. In this book, primary stress is marked on all polysyllabic words, irrespective of where it falls.

II

WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

II

WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

In this section the types and structure of Pangasinan words will be discussed, and the major components of these words, apart from the word roots themselves, will be listed and described. There is one question, however, which will not be answered directly: 'what is a word?' Let us assume that entities exist corresponding more or less to our intuitive feeling about what constitutes a word, and modify or refine the concepts we already have by examining a variety of 'words' in Pangasinan.

WORD ROOTS, AFFIXES, AND WORD CLASSES

Each word in Pangasinan consists of a core or ROOT. This root may occur by itself as a word in its own right, or it may be combined with one or more AFFIXES to form a word. Both possibilities exist for many roots, while others never occur in isolation. The root kan 'eat', for example, is not a word -- it is only found with affixes as in kánen 'will be eaten; food' (kan + -en), mañgán 'will eat; to eat' (maN- + kan). On the other hand, the root lako may be used as a word, meaning 'merchandise', or appear in such combinations as lomaláko 'merchant' (láko + R[eduplication of initial] C[onsonant and] V[owel]- + -om-), or manlako 'will sell' (man- + lako). We may go further, and divide the roots or the words formed from them into various 'classes', so that lako 'merchandise' may be called a NOUN, while the combination manlako may be classed as a VERB. More will be said about such word classes later.

An affix is an element which occurs only in combination with roots or other affixes, to which it is phonologically bound, which cannot itself function as a root. The latter restriction is necessary, as roots like kan occur only in combination with affixes, but are not themselves affixes. In the examples given above, -

en, maN-, -om-, and man- are affixes of various kinds, and the reduplication (RCV-) in lomalakó is also a special form of affixation.

Kinds of root

Words in Pangasinan may be SIMPLE, COMPOUND, OR COMPLEX. Most roots are simple -- as, e.g. kan and lako above, or abóng 'house', asó 'dog', toó 'man', palandéy 'mountain'. Compound roots are formed from two simple roots, producing a new word or root with a meaning somewhat different from that of its constituent parts, e.g. balolakí 'bachelor, unmarried youth or young man' from baló 'widow, widower' and lakí 'male'. A complex root is one which includes 'fossilized' affixes, but which is treated grammatically as a simple root and is not associated directly with its constituent parts, i.e. is regarded by most speakers of the language as an indivisible unit. Examples of complex roots are abalayán 'co-parent-in-law' (which may originally have been derived from a root balay), marikít 'maiden, unmarried girl or young woman' (from ma- 'adjectival affix' plus dikít 'spots caused by liquid'), and palduá 'to split into two' (containing the root duá 'two' and another element (pal-) which currently has no special meaning of its own, but occurs in similar circumstances in a few other words).

Types of affix

There are several ways in which affixes may be grouped, according to which aspect of their use or structure is being discussed. In relationship to the root there are four kinds of affixes -PREFIXES, which precede the root (like man- in manlako and maN- in mañgán), SUFFIXES, which follow the root (like -en in kánen), INFIXES which precede the first vowel of the root or STEM to which they are attached (as -om- in lomalakó), and CIRCUMFIXES, a combination of a suffix with a prefix or infix but functioning as a single entity, as i- ... -an 'non-past, benefactive' in igawaán 'will make for'.

In terms of their grammatical role, we may regard affixes as VERBAL when they enable the word in which they appear to function as a verb (man-, maN-, -en, and i- ... -an are examples of verbal affixes), NOMINAL when the word with which they are associated functions as a noun (as -om-), ADJECTIVAL when this function is attributable to their use (as ma- in matabá 'fat,

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healthy'). Those affixes which have the effect of changing the stem to which they are affixed from one word class to another may also be termed DERIVATIONAL. The adjectival affix *ma-* is one such derivational affix; in the example above, it combines with the noun- stem (and root) *tabá* 'fat, healthiness' to produce the adjective *matabá*.

Like roots, affixes may also be simple or compound; in the examples above, simple affixation has been employed in all but two cases - the circumfix *i- ... -an*, and the combination of the infix *-om-* with the reduplication of the stem with which it appears may both be regarded as compound affixes, as they constitute an indivisible whole as far as their meaning and use is concerned (*i-* and *-an* taken separately, for example, do not have the range of meaning and use which would enable one to predict the meaning of the combination *i- ... -an*). Affixation may be termed complex when the combinations are simply sums of their respective parts. Thus the suffix *-en* and the causative prefix *pa-* in the word *pabañgaten* 'will be caused to teach' do not form a circumfix *pa-... -en*, but rather a combination of causative plus passive, with each unit contributing independently to the meaning of the word.

Stems

The term 'stem' has been used without explanation a few times in the preceding paragraphs. A stem is simply that portion of a word which is subject to affixation. Take for example the root *bañgát* 'teach'. This root may form the stem to which an affix, say *pa-*, is attached. The combination *pabañgát* is also a stem to which another affix may be attached say *-in-* to produce *pinabañgát* 'was caused to teach'. If then the process of affixation stops, we have a word - as *pinabañgát* above. Some roots become words directly, e.g. *abóñg* 'house', whereas others must always pass through the stem stage, like *kan* 'eat', mentioned previously. If *abóñg* is to be used as a verb, as in *manabóñg* 'keep house', it must also, of course, first become a stem to which a verbal affix is attached.

Word Classes

Rather like the five vowels, English speaking people along with many others educated along traditional European lines where their knowledge of grammar is concerned, are likely to

have fairly set ideas about what kinds of words there are, and assume that these classes are found in most other languages as well. We can make good use of some of these concepts, with some major adjustments along the way, in talking about Pangasinan, and so some of the familiar terms like noun, verb, adjective and adverb will be used in our analysis. It is important, however, to say caveat lector, as there is no one to one correspondence between a verb in English and one in Pangasinan, and what are regarded as adverbs in English are often equivalent to Pangasinan 'adjectives'. Nevertheless, the use of some familiar labels may be comforting to the student, and is not entirely misleading.

We may isolate six major classes of words in Pangasinan -- particles, adverbs, pronouns and demonstratives, nouns, verbs, and adjectives. To these we may add another entity, numerals, which could well be divided among the last four major categories mentioned above, but which are more conveniently treated together. In the following pages each of these word classes will be discussed in turn, together with the affixes with which each is associated. The relationship of these entities to each other in the sentence is discussed in section III of this grammar.

PARTICLES

Particles are words with a primarily grammatical function - they serve to mark the relationship obtaining between a word or phrase and some other entity (another word or phrase, or even the remainder of the sentence). Although particles are almost entirely monosyllabic, and mean almost nothing outside the context of a phrase they are of paramount importance in the structure of a sentence - without them even comparatively simple utterances would become almost (if not completely) unintelligible. For this reason all the commonly encountered particles will be listed here, a feat which is not possible for most of the other word classes.

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Topic marking particles

The term TOPIC is more adequately explained in Section III. It is enough to say here that it denotes the phrase which is the subject of a sentence containing a verb, and a corresponding phrase in a verbless sentence. The particles marking this relationship are:

Personal, singular, intimate	<u>si</u>
Personal, plural or respectful	<u>di</u>
Non-personal, singular or indefinite	<u>imáy</u>
Non-personal, definite plural	<u>irámáy</u>
Non-personal, neutral	<u>so</u>

Phonological changes

The initial /i/ of imáy and irámáy is often dropped, almost invariably so when the preceding word ends in a vowel; irámáy is often further reduced to iráy, ráy (see below for more comments on this).

So regularly becomes a suffix, -y, when the preceding word ends in a vowel (which means that it may 'disappear' altogether following /i/); si may also undergo the same transformation in that environment, especially if the preceding element is a pronoun. When the preceding word ends in /n/, so also becomes -y, and the /n/ is deleted from the stem concerned.

Examples:

Antóy agáwa to? 'What did he do' (antóy=antó + so)?

Waláy talón. 'There is some eggplant' (waláy= walá + so);

Itanemán koy Pedro na pónti. 'I'll plant the banana for Pedro' (koy=ko + si).

Itaném nen Pedro may pónti. 'The banana was planted by Pedro; Labáy yo kasí ray kánen diá? 'Do you like the [various] foods here?' (ray= irámáy).

Walá ni pagéy. 'There's still some [unhusked] rice' (ni=ni + so).

Kapigáy insabím? 'When was your arrival?' (kapigáy=kapigán + so).

Use of topic markers.

The personal topic markers precede personal nouns (i.e. names of people, terms for close relatives, and the titles of certain important offices when the latter refer to a person) when the latter are (a) subjects of a verbal sentence, (b) topics or comments in an equational sentence, (c) in a relationship cross-reference to an attributive pronoun, (d) preceded by a preposition (see also note ne kinen below in relation to referent markers).

Examples: (personal markers)

Ibák si akuláw ko. 'My wife is my companion' (Topic of equational sentence).

Si Juan so paraasól. 'John is the one who fetches water' (Comment in equational sentence).

Singá ra di tátay mo. 'He is/they are just like your father' (topic of equational sentence).

Sinmabí si Raúl nen lúnes. 'Raul arrived on Monday' (subject of verbal sentence).

Agto labáy so dakél si Berting (not + by-him wanted mkr (topic) many mkr (personal) Berting). 'Berting does not want a crowd' (in apposition to attributive pronoun (to=Berting).

Naksawán si Bakés a nananáp ed si Bakokól.

'Monkey was tired out from looking for Turtle' (subject of verbal sentence (si Bakés); personal noun following preposition (si Bakokól)).

The markers imáy and irámay (with their variants) have a more limited use. They mark common nouns (i.e. any non-personal noun with the exception of Diós 'God' which is usually unmarked and forms with the names of Saints a class all by itself) when they are (a) subjects of verbal sentences when these occur following the verb, (b) topics of equational sentences, or (c) in apposition to an attributive pronoun or phrase. They are further restricted in that they are used only when the phrase concerned is either emphasized or refers to a definite entity; in this respect they correspond somewhat to the definite article 'the' in English.

Imáy may be used to denote either a single entity or a small number. Irámáy always denotes a substantial number, say more than five (the exact boundary will vary from speaker to speaker and occasion to occasion), although the contracted form ray may refer simply to 'two or more'. The components of these markers seem to be imán 'that' + so in the case of imáy, and irá 'plural, they' + imán + so for irámáy. However the composite forms function grammatically as units, and are most conveniently treated as if they were in fact indivisible; Occasionally, the demonstrative itán 'that' and iyá 'this' are also combined with so (-y), and used in the same way as imáy.

Examples: (imay, irámáy)

Diád sábado so isabí to may marikít (here + on Saturday mkr (topic) will-be-arrived by-her mkr (non-personal) maiden). 'The young lady will arrive on Saturday' (apposition - to=marikít).

Añgán na mañgga may ogáw. 'The boy ate the mango' (subject of verbal sentence).

Tagá inér imáy ogáw? 'Where is the boy from?' (topic of equational sentence).

Inatáy irámáy manók mi. 'Our chickens died'.

Itér mo may libro. 'Give me the book(s)' (subject of verbal sentence).

Inmalagáy iráy ogógaw. 'The boys stood up' (subject of verbal sentence).

Sinalíw da rámay anáko may bómbay danúm (was-bought by-them marker (plural) child + my marker (topic) pump + marker (attributive) water). 'My children bought the water pump' (appositive phrase - da=anáko; subject of verbal sentence - bómbay danúm).

Onpalargo yay jeepney ed Bugallon. 'Does this jeepney go directly to Bugallon?' (subject of verbal sentence).

The marker so, which is neutral both in regard to definiteness and plurality, occurs in the following environments: (a) before the topic of an equational sentence except where this precedes the comment, or consists of a pronoun, or prophrase, or is marked by another topic marker; where the topic is marked by an article, the use of so is obligatory; (b) before

the subject of a verbal sentence, except where this precedes the verb or consists of one of the elements which preclude the use of so before the topic of an equational sentence; and (c) as a component of the topic markers imáy, irámáy and their variants as mentioned above, and of the articles say, sáray, etc. (discussed further below).

Examples: (so)

Siopáy íba to (siopáy=siopá + so). ‘Who is his companion?’

Agyo labáy so bibíngka dimán? (not + by-you liked mkr (topic) rice-cake there). ‘Didn’t you like the rice cakes there?’ (subject of verbal sentence).

Mareén so kaáboñgán diá. ‘[It’s a] quiet neighborhood here’ (topic of equational sentence).

Asiñgér la lamét so panagtaném. ‘Planting time is already near again’ (topic of equational sentence).

Atálo so pústa mi (was-defeated mkr (topic) bet our). ‘We lost our bet’ (subject of verbal sentence; note that, as here, the full form so may be used even where -y is also permissible).

Punasán moy lamisaán (will-be-cleaned-on by-you + mkr (topic) table). ‘Clean the table’ or ‘You will clean the table’ (subject of verbal sentence)

Say balíta so nen viérnis labát so inpakaasingér na cuétis ed bolán. ‘The news [is that] on Friday the rocket approached the moon’ (topic of equational sentence; there are two equational sentences in this example, one embedded in the other: the sentence as a whole consists of say balíta ‘the news’ (comment) + so nen viérnis ... (topic); the topic itself is also in the form of a sentence: nen viérnis labát ‘on Friday only’ (comment) + so inpakaasingér na cuétis ... ‘the approach of the rocket ...’ (topic).

Say ikákaná day aróm ya domarálos so say bómba ya manopsóp na danúm ed ílog (the is-needed by-them + mkr (appositive) some lnk farmers mkr (topic) the pump lnk will-suck mkr (object) water from river). ‘What some of the farmers need is a pump that will draw water from the river’ (appositive - da=domáralos; topic of equational sentence). (See also the notes on articles, below).

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Articles

The articles in Pangasinan consist of combinations of the stem sa-, the demonstratives man, tan, (rarely also ya), the plural marker ra, and the topic marker so (in the form -y). As with the composite topic markers imáy and irámáy, however, they function grammatically as units, and are most conveniently treated as such. The following articles are those most frequently encountered:

'the', neutral (space, number)	<u>say</u>
'the', neutral (space), plural	<u>sáray</u>
'the', distant but known, neutral (number)	<u>sámáy</u>
'the', distant, plural	<u>sarámay</u>
'the', proximate, neutral (space)	<u>sátay</u>
'the', proximate, plural	<u>sarátay</u>

The forms sayay, saráyay 'the, proximate to speaker' are possible, but are rarely used as articles.

Changes in phonological shape.

The articles sámáy, sarámay have alternate forms lacking initial /s/- ámáy, arámay. The forms with and without initial /s/ seem to be freely interchangeable in any environment.

Uses of Articles

Articles may mark the comment of an equational sentence (as in the last two examples in the preceding section) and may also be found preceding common nouns in other situations where the speaker wishes to give the noun or noun phrase concerned additional emphasis or stronger identification. Their use is obligatory when a common noun forms the first element of the comment of an equational sentence when the latter is also the subject of a verbal sentence, the remainder of which forms the topic of the equation. In phrases where their use is optional, articles are more often encountered in written Pangasinan or in formal speech than in casual conversation.

Examples:

Akitongtóng may ogáw ed sarámáy bibíi. 'The boy was talking to the women'.

Say onlá ed Cebú so maírap (the will-go to Cebu mkr (topic) difficult). '[It is] the journeying to Cebu [which] is difficult'.

Say tinápay so inpakán to may marikít ed sámay asók (the bread mkr (topic) was-fed-with by-her mkr (appositive) maiden to the (remote) dog + my). 'It was the bread that the maiden used for feeding that dog of mine'.

Sámay apók so análo (the (remote) grandchild + my mkr (topic) did-win). 'My grandchild [was the one who] won'.

Karaklán ed sámay dumáralos ... 'the majority of the farmers ...'.

Maóng sirin so manusár na say panagpatáy na bigi-bigís (good surely mkr (topic) to-use the mkr (object) circumstances-of-killing of insects). 'It's good to use insecticide'. (Where no ambiguity will result, as in this example, it is permissible to drop the object marker na before the article; the example could therefore also read ... panagusár say panagpatáy ...).

Si as an article.

The marker si has some of the functions of an article. One of these, its use in marking the comment of an equational sentence when the first element therein is a personal noun, has already been mentioned and exemplified. Occasionally, si is also treated as an article when the noun it precedes forms the first element in the topic of such a sentence.

Example:

Say kuán-da-n san-ka-nengneng da-n on-pawáy ed sa-ya-n convención na Partido Liberál so si Abogádo Sison. (the thought + by-them + lnk the-one-who-is-looked-upon by-them + lnk will-emerge from this + lnk convention mkr (attributive) party liberal mkr (topic) mkr (personal) lawyer Sison). 'The one they think is most likely to emerge [victorious] from this Liberal Party convention is Attorney Sison.'

Attributive and object (non-focus) markers

The same set of markers is used to mark attribution of objects or actions (often translatable by 'of' and 'by' respectively in English), and in the case of non-personal nouns, to mark the

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object of the action when this is not in focus (i.e. when it is not the grammatical subject of the verb – see the section on focus in Part III, *infra*). The particles involved are:

Personal, singular	<u>nen</u>
Personal, plural or respectful	<u>di</u>
Non-personal	<u>na</u>

Changes in phonological shape.

Like so, the particle na may take the form of a suffix, -y, when the stem preceding it ends in a vowel.

Examples:

Manalíw kay kárne ed tindáan (kay kárne=ka na kárne). ‘You will buy meat in the market’, ‘will you ...’.

pístay inatáy (= písta na inatáy ‘fiesta for the dead’ (i.e. ‘All Saints Day’).

símbay ñgárem (= símba na ñgárem) ‘Sunday afternoon’

Use of attributive/non-topic object markers.

As attributives, nen, di and na mark the phrase denoting the possessor of an object, or the phrase which would constitute the subject of the active form of a passive, referential, or other non-active verbal sentence when such phrases are not represented by attributive pronouns. The particles nen and di precede personal nouns, while na precedes common nouns. If plurality needs to be marked in phrases preceded by na, this is done by inflecting one of the other components of the phrase (e.g. an article or noun) for plurality.

Examples: (attribution)

Nineñgnéñg nen Juan si Maria (was-looked-at mkr (atr) Juan mkr (subj) Maria). ‘Maria was seen by John’, ‘John looked at/saw Maria’ (attribution of action).

Pinaakís na balolakí may marikít (was-made-cry mkr (atr) bachelor mkr (subj) maiden). ‘The young man made the girl cry’ (attribution of action).

Inpesakán to may kawés na marikít (was-washed-upon by-her mkr (subj) clothing of maiden). ‘She washed the girl’s clothes’ (attribution of possession).

Linma kamí dimad abóng di Juanita. ‘We went to Juanita’s house’ (attribution of possession – the phrase di Juanita is used as Juanita would not normally be the sole occupant of the house; di Juanita therefore has the connotation ‘Juanita and her family’ or ‘Juanita and the others’).

Nabuás la so bansál nen Sélya. ‘Celia’s wedding is tomorrow’ (attribution of possession).

Ámay abóng so daitán nen Pedro ed aysing (the house mkr (topic) will-be-sewn-in mkr (atr) Pedro to clothes). ‘The house is where Pedro will be sewing the clothes’ (attribution of action).

Anggapóy kuárta nen Sélya (not-existing + mkr (topic) money mkr (atr) Selya). ‘Celia has no money’ (attribution of possession).

As markers of unfocused objects, na occurs before the same kinds of phrases as in its attributive sense; these phrases are, however, the grammatical objects of the sentences concerned and so occur only following the verb in verbal sentences.

Examples: (na marking object)

Nanlutó si Juan na báaw. ‘John cooked the rice’.

Illutoán nen Juan si Pedro na sirá (will-be-cooked-for mkr (atr) Juan mkr (subj) Pedro mkr (obj) fish). ‘Juan will cook fish for Pedro’ (nen marks attribution, na the object of the action in this sentence).

Analíw ak na kíndi. ‘I bought candy’.

Mangibangát si Juan na anak nen Sélya. ‘John will teach Celia’s child’.

Further uses of na.

In its attributive role, na may also mark an adverb-like relationship between an adjective and preceding verb, or between a specific temporal division and a preceding more general time-word.

Examples:

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Binmatík na maplés si Pedro (did-run mkr (atr) forceful mkr (subj) Pedro). ‘Pedro ran strongly’.

Gústok so manbílay na andokéy (liked + by-me mkr (topic) to-live mkr (atr) long). ‘I would like to live long’.

Onsabí irá nabuás na alas dós (will-arrive they tomorrow mkr (atr) at two [o’clock]). ‘They’ll come at two tomorrow’.

Onpawíl irá nabuás na lábi. ‘They’ll return tomorrow evening’.

Sinmempét kamí nen símbay ñgárem. ‘We came back on Sunday afternoon’. (Símbay=símbe + na; the nen in this sentence is not the personal marker of the same phonological shape).

Viércoles na panangogtó ‘Thursday lunchtime’.

Similarly, na may sometimes link a noun to another noun or phrase in a descriptive or adjective-like relationship.

Example:

Say súki tayóy sirá (the súki our + mkr (atr) fish). ‘Our súki for fish’. (i.e. ‘The vendor from whom we usually buy fish’).

Referent markers

The referent phrase (which corresponds to a phrase denoting indirect object, location and similar relationships in English translations – see the appropriate section of Part III for further explanation) is marked by the following particles:

Personal, singular	<u>kínen</u> , <u>ed si</u>
Personal, plural or respect	<u>kindí</u>
Non-personal	<u>ed</u>

Phonological changes

The marker ed may become a suffix, -d, when the preceding stem ends in a vowel or /n/; in the latter case, the /n/ concerned is deleted.

Examples:

dimád bányo ‘there in the bathroom’ (dimád=dimán + ed)

Linmád Ibále. '(He) went to Manila' (linmád= linmá 'did-go' + ed).

Use of referent markers.

The referent markers precede referential (including locative and agentive) phrases when the latter occur following the verb in a verbal sentence whenever the phrase concerned is not the subject of the sentence. They also mark locative phrases in other environments in a sentence except when such a phrase occurs as the first element in the topic or comment of the sentence concerned; in the latter circumstances the phrase marked by ed is placed in apposition to a preceding demonstrative. The construction demonstrative + locative phrase introduced by ed is also common in verbal sentences. The benefactive marker para is also sometimes (but not obligatorily) followed by a referent marker. The personal referent markers precede personal nouns; other nouns in a referential phrase, including independent pronouns (but normally excluding locative demonstratives) are marked by ed.

Examples:

Mangitulór ak na búro ed Bugallon. 'I'll take the fermented fish (buro) to Bugallon' (location).

Akipirdonaán si Bill kinen Mondong. 'Bill forgave (was forgiving towards) Mondong' (referent).

Labáy ko komóy akisayáw ed sikató (wanted by-me hopefully + mkr (topic) did-mutually-dance with her). 'I had hoped to dance with her'.

Antóy itáwag ko ed bálang sakéy ed sikará? 'What will I call each of them' (to each one among them)? (referent/location).

Salámat na balbáleg ed invitación yo. 'Thanks very much for your invitation' (referent).

sáno desiócho ed boláy enéro 'on the eighteenth (among the month) of January' (location - i.e. the position of the day in relation to the month).

Nananáp si Linda na manók dimád hardín. 'Linda caught the chicken there in [the] garden' (appositive location).

Benefactive marker

The marker pára indicates the benefactive phrase when this element is not the subject of a verbal sentence (this prohibition extends to comments of equational sentences when the latter are concurrently subjects of a verbal sentence comprising the topic phrase). As noted above, pára may be followed optionally by a referent marker. When a referent marker is not used, the phrase following pára must have for its first element an independent pronoun or an article (si before personal nouns; if the personal noun requires a plural or respect marker, the marker kindí is generally used).

Examples:

Pára siopá may rósas. 'For whom are the flowers?'

Analíw ak na kindí pára kinen Cora. 'I bought the candy for Cora'.

Angalá si Pedro na libro pára sámay marikít. 'Pedro got the book for the maiden'.

Identificational prepositions

The prepositions singá 'like, as if', tagá 'from (a place of origin)', dapít 'towards', together with the benefactive marker pára discussed above, may be grouped together as 'identificational prepositions', as the phrases which they precede are frequently the comments of equational sentences and serve to identify the topic. Dapít may also form part of a locative phrase the first member of which is ed, the combination indicating the direction in which the object concerned is or was located.

Examples:

Singá ra di nánay mo (like she (topic resp) mkr (topic, resp) mother your). '[It's] as if she were your mother', 'She acts/appears like your mother'.

Singá onpapatéy no mansasalíta (like is-dying when is-speaking). '[He's] like a dying man when he speaks'.

Aliwán singá sikato di nánay mo (not + Inkr like she (ind) mkr (resp) mother your). 'It's as if she were not your mother'.

Tagá inér? (=Tagá inér ø) 'Where is he from?'

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Tagá inér sarámay mamarikít? 'Where are [all] those girls from?'

Tagá ra Iloilo. 'They're from Iloilo'.

Tagá America si Bill (=Tagá ø America si Bill). 'Bill's from America'.

Tagá ra Iloilo sarámay mamarikít. 'Those girls are from Iloilo'.

Pinmélnak may bitúen ed dapít bokíg. 'The star appeared in the direction of the East'.

Dapít diá so abóng to. 'His house is somewhere around here'.

Note from the above examples how tagá is always followed by a topic pronoun except when the interrogative inér is employed. When inér is not used, the word order is always:

tagá + topic pronoun + place name (+ phrase identifying entity represented by pronoun).

In positive sentences, singá may be followed by a topic pronoun or by an unmarked phrase containing a noun, or verb functioning as a noun; in negative sentences, however, the topic pronoun is replaced by an independent pronoun (see example above; some further examples of sentences with singá appear in the section 'Negating equational sentences' in Part III).

Temporal and conditional prepositions and conjunctions

The following prepositions and conjunctions introduce phrases denoting time or condition:

<u>antés</u>	before
<u>alás</u>	at (hour of the clock)
<u>nen</u>	on, in (past time)
<u>no</u>	on, in, when, if (non-past)
<u>sanó</u>	next, on, after (non-past)
<u>sanén</u>	last, on (past)

The conjunction antés is followed by a verbal sentence, the subject of which is linked to the remainder of the sentence by a.

Example:

Labáy kon onogíp antes ak a onpawíl ed Manila (wanted by-me + lnk to-sleep before I (topic) lnk will-return to Manila). 'I want to sleep before I return to Manila'.

Alas occurs only before Spanish numerals indicating hours of the clock. It assumes the form alá before the numeral una 'one'.

Example:

Sinmabí kamí nimán alás dos ed ngarem (arrived we (excl topic) then at two in the afternoon'.

Nen and no form a set, one denoting past time and the other futurity, which may precede words or phrases indicating days of the week, months, or subordinate verbal sentences in which the verb is the first element (in contrast to antes above). They do not normally precede numerals or stand first in a main sentence.

Examples:

Mantánem ak na pónti no símba. 'I'll plant the banana on Sunday'.

no sakéy a bolán in one month('s time)

Labáy kon onogíp no onpawíl ak ed Manila. 'I want to sleep when I return to Manila'.

Línma ak ed Quiapo nen sinmabí ak dimád Manila. 'I went to Quiapo when I reached Manila'.

Sinmabí ak nen símbay ñgárem. 'I arrived on Sunday afternoon'.

Aliwán singá nen katantaón (not + lnk like in last-year). 'It's not like [it was] last year'.

No also links conditional phrases to the rest of the sentence; in this type of construction, it may appear as the first element in a sentence.

Examples:

Siansía no maksíl so lamán (to-be-so if strong mkr (topic) body).
i.e. 'I'll come if I can'.

Say labáy koy ántaen no antóy itáwag ko ed bálang sakéy ed sikará (the wanted by-me + mkr (topic) will-be-known if what + mkr (topic) will-be-called by-me to each one among them). 'What I want to know is what I should call each one of them'.

Tawág mo irá diá no labáy da (be-summoned by-you they (subj) here if liked by-them). 'Ask them here if they would like [to come]'.

No ontán walá met si betáng da (if like-that existing too mkr (topic) share their). 'In that case they have a share too'.

Sanó and sanén have the same temporal connotations as no and nen respectively. They may occur as the first word in a sentence, and precede numerals.

Examples:

Sáno desiócho ed boláy enéro so fiéstá mi. 'Our fiesta will be on the eighteenth of Januray'.

Ag kamí onpawíl diá sáno sábadó. 'We will not come back here next Saturday'.

Sáno sabádo sírin onpawíl kayó diá. 'You'll come back next Saturday then'.

Sanén kínsi ed sáyan bolán. '[It was] on the fifteenth of this month'.

The linker ya

The particle ya (alternating with the forms a and -n, the latter suffixed to the vowel of the preceding stem) is perhaps the most frequently encountered particle in any sequence of Pangasinan speech. Its function is to link descriptive statements, words, or phrases to the noun, verb, or phrase which is being described. In many cases, the linker has no equivalent in an English translation. When it links two statements, however, ya has the sense of the English relatives 'who' and 'that'. The examples which follow illustrate the various uses of ya, and are accompanied by notes on which elements are linked.

Examples:

Masantós a kabuasán ed sikayó (blessed lnk morning to you (pl)).
'Good morning' (adjective + noun).

sakéy ya too 'One man' (ordinal numeral + noun).

Waláy balón kawés ko. 'I have new clothes' (adjective + noun).

Waláy sirá ya angkabáleg. 'There are some fish which are quite big' (noun + adjective).

Onsípot iráy wadián kakanáyon tan amimígas nen Susan (will-go they + mkr (app) existing-here + lnk relatives and friends ...).
'Susan's friends and relatives who are here will go' (adjective to noun phrase).

Walá ni ray onsabín kakanáyon tayón nanlapód Binmáley (existing still they + mkr (app) will-come + lnk relatives our + lnk did-come + mkr (ref) Binmáley). 'Our relatives who came from Binmaley are still [due] to arrive' (verb to noun phrase; noun phrase to (remainder of) verbal sentence).

Lánang a wadtán ed abóng di Fe. 'He's always there at Fe's house' (adverb to existential adjective).

Labáy ko áyan chinélas. 'I like those slippers' (adjectival demonstrative to noun).

Aliwán maóng ya sinmabí kayó (not + lnk good lnk did-come you). 'It's not good that you came' (negative adverb to adjective; adjective to verbal sentence).

Alám yay píso ya papetpét ko ed anak yo. 'Take the peso that I pressed into your child's hand' (noun to verbal sentence).

Displacement of linked phrase

Pronouns and certain adverbial elements frequently intervene to shift the linker and the phrase which follows it to a place in the sentence somewhat distant from the word or phrase to which it relates.

Examples:

Mangán ak lan mangán (will-eat I already + lnk will-eat). 'I'll eat and eat!' (repeated verbs, separated by pronoun and adverb).

Ngálngalín agkó labáy so onbangón (very) -nearly + lnk negative + by-me wanted mkr (topic) will-arise). ‘I very nearly didn’t want to get up this morning’ (intervening pronoun; the negative particle may be more closely related to labáy than is the linked phrase).

Nílabilábi kayón onlá ta? (every night you + lnk will-go is-it?). ‘Are you going every night?’ (intervening pronoun).

Agní irá linmán bisíta mi. ‘Our visitors have not yet come’. (bisíta mi actually relates to irá ‘they’, which is moved to the pre-verbal position because of the negative particle – see section on negative verbal sentences in Part III).

Inér so nanaralán mo ya manlúto. ‘Where did you learn to cook’ (intervening pronoun).

Pinmasiár kami met lan amiduá (called-in we also already + lnk twice). ‘We’ve been twice already’ (intervening pronoun and adverbs).

Other Conjunctions

The remaining conjunctive particles are:

<u>et</u>	‘on the other hand’
<u>bálet</u>	‘but, however’
<u>iñgén</u>	‘but, moreover’
<u>tan</u>	‘and’
<u>ó</u>	‘or’
<u>kanián</u>	‘so, therefore’
<u>pián</u>	‘so, that’
<u>lapó</u>	‘because [of]’ (origin)
<u>insán</u>	‘then’
<u>ta</u>	‘because’ (reason)
<u>báñg</u>	‘even; though’
<u>báñgno</u>	‘when’
<u>dápot</u>	‘provided that’

Et and bálet may be termed ‘adversative’ conjunctions, as their use implies the possibility of an assertion contrary to that made; iñgén, on the other hand, implies the possibility of a state different from that referred to, but lacks the negative implications of the adversative conjunctions. The interrogative ákin

‘why’ is often followed by et, implying that there is some doubt as to whether the action, event etc. questioned should (have) or need (have) come into being.

Examples:

Say pakaliknák et aglabáy nen Fe (the observation + my on-the-other-hand not + liked mkr (atr) Fe). ‘From what I can gather, he is not [really] liked by Fe’ i.e. ‘it is not Fe who really likes him’.

Bálet sanó walá lay talóy taón to yay anáko insán komón manyógtan (but after existing already + mkr (topic) three + mkr (atr) year his the child + my then hopefully will1-be-a-younger-child). ‘But hopefully the next one will arrive’.

Malínis ya, bálet malinlínis ni man. ‘This is clean, but that is cleaner still’.

Ákin et kinetkét mo ak? ‘Why was I bitten by you’ i.e. ‘why did you bite me’.

Illában mo kamí iñgén ed maóges (will-be-liberated by-you we (excl) moreover from evil). ‘But deliver us from evil’.

The coordinating conjunctions tan and o join words or phrases in which both segments have equal status, unlike subordinating conjunctions (e.g. ya) which subordinate one element to another. Compare for example the status of the adjectives báleg ‘big’ and amputí ‘white’ in the phrases say báleg tan amputín asó ‘the big and white dog’ (i.e. the dog which is both big and white), and say báleg ya amputín asó ‘the big white dog’ (i.e. the white dog which is big).

When common nouns are joined by tan, the first will be preceded by a plural marker where appropriate, and the second may be unmarked. The first of a series of personal nouns will normally be preceded by the marker di, and the succeeding nouns by si (or di if the status of the person concerned warrants it). When the nouns are of mixed classes, an initial common noun may be preceded simply by a singular marker.

Examples:

duámpló tan duá twenty two.

anengnéng da ak di Pedro tan si Juan. 'I was seen by Pedro and Juan' (note the appositive nature of the coordinated phrase; da=di Pedro ...).

Inmurán tan binmagió. 'It rained and stormed'.

Naurán irámay marikít tan balolakí. 'The maiden and bachelor were caught in the rain'.

Onsabí may marikít tan si Pedro no lúnes 'The girl and Pedro will arrive on Monday'.

Diád lábi o ñgárem na desinuéve sínin so iakár tayó. 'We'll go on the evening or afternoon of the seventeenth then'.

The conjunction ta 'because' precedes phrases denoting reason. It is used more extensively than its counterpart in English, as reason phrases are rarely transformed into simple statements not explicitly marked as reasons. Further, in answers to questions ta is often preceded by on 'yes' (or 'andi' 'no') to express agreement or disagreement with the explicit or implied content of the question or the statements prompting it.

In statements expressing opinion or hope, ta is often employed in a manner reminiscent of English 'that'. The connotation of reason or justification is, however, still present in the Pangasinan phrase.

Examples:

Antá to ta Filipína. 'She knows because [she's a] Filipina'.

Walán walá ta pián makadagó iráy amimíga nen Susan (existing + lnk existing because so-that can-attend mkr (topic) friends mkr (atr) Susan). '[It's certainly] going to be [held] so that Susan's friends can come'.

Sapá komón ta makasumpál na áral to (may-it-be hopefully because can-complete mkr (obj) study his). 'Let it be hoped that he can complete his studies'.

'Ákin konó ey? 'On, ta dimán met so abóng da? 'Why would that be?' 'Yes, because their house is there'.

Maóng ta sinmabí kayó. 'It's good that you came'.

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The conjunctions kanián 'so, therefore, that's why', pián 'so that', insán 'then', lapó 'because' dápot 'provided that', bañg 'even, though', bañgno 'when, whenever' are all frequently encountered as the initial elements in a sentence. In the case of the first three mentioned, however, this is merely because the first of the two elements they conjoin is left unstated because it happens to be implicit in the context of the conversation or statement of which the 'effective' sentence forms part. Their 'proper' place is between the conjoined elements, the second of which is subordinate to the first, although the order may be reversed sometimes for emphasis (in which case the subordinate phrase is still marked by pián).

Examples:

Kanián dakél so bisíta ya binagaán da! 'So that's why [so] many visitors were invited by them!'

Ágew na Pásko so inkianák di nánay ko, kanián Jesúsa so ñgarán to. 'Christmas day is my mother's birthday, so that's why her name is Jesusa'.

Pankakábaten yo la sírin pián makapantoñgtóñg met la fan sanaabalayan. 'You should be introducing [them] so that they can talk [together], the parents of the couple'.

Pián makatáwal kayó, itér ko lay sampló. 'So you can bargain, I'll offer [the goods to you for] ten [pesos]'.

Insán onlá tayó ed kamposanto lamét. 'Then [i.e. after that] we'll go to the cemetery again'.

Insán lakí ni met. 'Then again, he's a boy'.

Onbunábuná iráy intaném yon pisípisíñg; insán on-buñgá met irán maóñg. 'The vegetables you planted will grow strongly; then they'll bear well'.

Lapúd babóy pinatáy toy tóo. 'Because of a pig he killed a man'.

Bañg so sílib na demónio, sikán kiéw met so análo. 'Even the wiles of the devil, you, Oh Wood will also vanquish'.

Bañgno asabí lay boláy máyo sáray totóo so masayak-sák irá lapód panagpístay Sta. Cruz de Máyo. 'Whenever the month May has arrived the people are joyful because of the festival time of Santa Cruz de Mayo'.

Dápot no aňggapóy onsabísabín mandéral ed sarayán anapán na totóo, et onábig met komón so panagbiláy da. ‘Provided that there are no calamities befalling the people’s source of livelihood, their state of living will hopefully improve’.

ADVERBS

Unlike the marking particles, prepositions, linkers and conjunctions, adverbs do not serve to mark the relationship between words and phrases, or between these entities and the rest of the sentence. Instead, they modify the meaning of words, phrases, or sentences by introducing aspectual elements like time, repetition, limitation, intensity, or certainty, or elements like negation, interrogation, respect, alternation, identity, and desire.

Negative adverbs

The negative adverb ag is usually phonologically a part of the word which follows it, although it is also often written separately, and can be regarded as a unit mid-way between an affix and an independent word. It may be attached directly to verb stems, or to topic or attributive pronouns (the effects of this on the arrangement of words in a sentence are discussed in the section on negating negative sentences in Part III). The third person topic pronoun takes the form a following ag (in other positions it has no phonological representation, simply being ‘understood’ from the context), and the resulting form aga may be used in place of the negative adjective aliwá (q.v.) before the comment of an equational sentence.

Examples:

Agyó labáy so kánen diá? (not + by-you liked mkr (topic) food here). ‘Don’t you like the food here?’

Agkayó onpawíl diá sanó sábadó? (not + you will-return here next Saturday). ‘Won’t you come back next Saturday?’

Agantá nen Pedro ya wadiá ka (not + known mkr (atr) Pedro lnk existing-here you). ‘Pedro doesn’t know you’re here’.

Agnayári (not + can-be-brought-to-fruit). ‘It’s not possible’.

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Agá maóng so pananalíta to (not + it good mkr (topic) way-of-speaking his). 'He does not speak well'.

Interrogative adverbs

The interrogative adverbs are ta, which simply indicates that the sentence in which it appears is a question; kasí, which may sometimes be translated as 'is it?' or 'is it that ...'; and ey, which covers the range of such English expressions as 'eh', 'what about ...' '... then?' ey usually occurs at the end of a sentence; ta may also occur at the end of a sentence, but usually follows the word or phrase which the speaker wishes to direct attention towards, and thus may occur at almost any point in the sentence except initially. Kasí usually occurs at the end of the comment of an equational sentence, or immediately following the phrase denoting attribution of action in passive or other non-active verbal sentences.

Examples:

Labáy yo kasí so kánen diá 'Is it that (i.e. do) you like the food here?'

Antó kasí iparáan ko? (what is-it will-be-prepared by-me). 'What should I prepare?'

Pigára kasí iparáan tán gástosen (how-much is-it will-be-prepared by-us-two + lnk will-be-spent)? 'How much should we put aside to spend?'

Dakél tay bagaán mo (Many question + mkr (topic) will-be-asked by-you)? 'Will you be inviting many?'

Nílábilábi kayón onla ta? (every-night you + lnk will-go question). 'Will you go every night?'

Akábat ta la nen Inciong so kakanayon nen Cion? 'Had Inciong already met Cion's relatives?'

Sikayó ey? 'What about you?'

Inér so nanaralán to ya manlúto ey? (Where + mkr (topic) was-learned-at by-her lnk to-cook question). 'Where did she learn to cook?'

Antóy ñgarán to ey? 'What is his name?'

Optative adverbs

The optative adverbs are sapá ‘may it be so’, and komón ‘hopefully’ (future anticipation). To these may be added lawári ‘nearly; it should be so’, although this latter word does not always imply hopefulness on the part of the speaker. The adverb sapá is found most often preceding komón, but the latter also occurs alone in many contexts, indicating an anticipated or wished for possibility.

Examples:

Gabáy day comunístas lawári ya golowén so elección (liked by-them + mkr (topic) communists should-be lnkr will-be-disrupted mkr (subj) election). ‘The communists were hoping that the election would be disrupted’.

Naplag konó lawári may anak di Nana Maria ed kasiliás da (did-fall it-seems nearly mkr (subj) child mkr (atr) Nana Maria mkr (ref) toilet their). ‘I think Nana Maria’s child nearly fell into their toilet’.

Sapá komón ta kasián iráy Diós (may-it-be hopefully because will-be-given-mercy they + mkr (atr) God). ‘May God bless them’.

Maóng komón no ágewágew ya makapanlako kayóy sirá (good hopefully if daily lnk can-sell you + mkr (obj) fish). ‘It would be good if you were able to sell fish every day’.

Onábíg met komón so panagbiláy da. ‘Hopefully their living conditions will also improve’.

Adverbs of certainty and uncertainty

The adverbs of certainty and uncertainty are manáya ‘it is so’; sirin ‘then, in that case, surely’; segúro ‘perhaps’; konó ‘I think, it is said, it seems, indeed, most probably’; and palá ‘certainly’. There are no precise English equivalents of any of these words, and their range of meaning, especially in the case of konó is so great that the context in which the word appears must be known before an English translation can be made with any degree of accuracy.

Examples:

Sáno sábado sírin onpawíl kayó diá ta inkianák to may sakéy ya anáko (next Saturday then will-return you here ...). 'Be sure to come back next Saturday then because one of my children is having a birthday'.

Mabayág sírin so manálagar na lugánan a onaráp ed Bugallon (long then mkr (topic) will-wait-for mkr (obj) vehicle ...). 'So you have to wait for a long time then to get a ride to Bugallon?'

Ay, sígi palá sírin, anáko (Oh, o.k. certainly then, child + my). 'Oh, then you go ahead by all means'.

Wadiá kayó manáya! (existing-here you it-is-so). 'So you're here!'

Nananák ka la manáya (did-give-birth you already it-is-so). 'So you've had your child already?'

Ay, angkekélag manáya. 'Oh, [they are] certainly very small'.

Bálon taón la manáya nabuás. 'Tomorrow it will be New Year already'.

Akin konó ey? 'Why [is that] I wonder?'

Andí konó ta agtó ni pinankakábat irá (no it-seems because not + by-him yet were-introduced they). 'It seems not, because they were not yet introduced by him'.

Labáy da konó so mikábat ed sáray totóo diá (wanted by-them it-seems mkr (topic) will-mutually-meet ...). 'I'm sure they would like to get to know the people here'.

Labinduá irán anghíl konó. '[It's planned that] there will be twelve angels'.

Naáni segúro (later-on probably). 'In a little while'.

Adverbs of limitation

The adverbs of limitation are:

<u>la</u>	'already, imminently'
<u>ni</u>	'still, yet'
<u>labát</u>	'just, only'
<u>ñgálñgalí</u>	'almost, approaching, not quite, nearly'
<u>beñgát, lambeñgát</u>	'only'
<u>lambeñgát</u>	'unrestrictedly'

The adverb la, which is perhaps the most frequently encountered adverbial element in Pangasinan speech, indicates that an action, state or event has already taken place, or is to be completed forthwith. Its opposite is ni, which indicates that what is referred to is still in the process of becoming or is otherwise incomplete. Both words may occur immediately following the phrase to which they most closely refer. In the process, they may displace the linker ya, as illustrated earlier.

The adverb ñgálñgalí indicates that a potential state of affairs did not quite become an actuality; its counterpart is labát, which indicates that an actuality almost remained a potentiality. The latter word has, however, a wider meaning, and may also indicate that a state or condition is restricted to the entity or activity designated by the phrase which it follows. The adverbs beñgát and lambeñgát precede the verb phrase to which they refer, and indicate that the action is limited to whatever is explicitly stated in the sentence. The combination beñgátla (often written beñgát la), on the other hand, denotes a complete absence of such limitations.

Examples:

O, kanián maóng lan talagáy pananalítam na Pangasinan (oh, therefore good already + lnr really + mkr (topic) way-of-speaking + your of Pangasinan). 'Oh, so that's why you already speak Pangasinan really well'.

Asompál lay pístay inatáy. 'The fiesta of the dead is already over'.

Mamúra la tan! 'That's already cheap!'

Onlá kamí la (will-go we already). 'We're going now'.

Ándi ni. 'Not yet'.

Apúyat ak ni met kalabián 'I was also sleepless the previous night' (ni here emphasizes the continuity of the state referred to).

Ogáw met ni (child also still). 'He's still a child'.

Say sanasawá et ñgálñgalí agda la naalagár ya palútoen so kalobása (the couple however nearly not + by them able-to-wait lnr will-be-ripened mkr (subj) calabash). 'The couple could hardly wait for the gourd to ripen'.

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Ngálngalín agko labáy so onbangón (nearly not + by-me wanted mkr (subj) will-arise). 'I almost didn't get up'.

Ngálngalí agirá makalinawá. 'They were almost unable to breathe'. (i.e. 'They could hardly breathe'.)

Daisét labát. 'Just a little'.

Tawág yo ak labát na Miguél (be-called by-you I just mkr (obj) Miguel). 'Just call me Miguel'.

Ipaabóng yo labát. 'Just make yourselves at home'.

Say deláp tan bagió labát so antakót dan mandéral ed pan-bibilayán da. (the flood and storm only mkr (topic) feared by-them + lnkr will-destroy mkr (ref) source-of-life their). 'It is only the floods and storms which they fear will destroy their source of sustenance'.

Beñgát-beñgát ya kinablít toy paltóg (only (intens) lnk was-touched-lightly by-him + mkr (subj) gun). 'All he did was lightly touch [the trigger of] the gun'.

Say pilálek day americanós ya gamorán so aliwá lambeñgát ya nasabín naáker sobulán (the interest their + mkr (app) Americans lnk will-be-achieved mkr (topic) not only lnk can-be-reached + lnk can-be-proceeded mkr (subj) moon). 'The Americans are interested in achieving more than simply reaching and going around the moon'.

Dápot no anggapóy onsabisabín beñgátlan mandéral ed saráyan anapán da ... 'Provided that nothing happens which would destroy in any way their livelihood ...'

Adverbs of intensity, duration, continuity and frequency

The adverbs signifying intensity, duration, continuity and frequency are:

<u>lalo</u>	'especially'
<u>lánañg</u>	'often'
<u>laíngen</u>	'excessively, overwhelmingly'
<u>balót</u>	'[not] at all, in [no] way'
<u>karí</u>	'indeed'
<u>lawás</u>	'always'

The adverb balót is found only in negative sentences; it serves to intensify the negation and make it all-embracing. Lawás has become somewhat archaic, and is more likely to be encountered in written than in spoken Pangasinan. The adverb karí serves to give emphasis to the statement in which it appears, while lálo intensifies the significance of the phrase to which it relates. Laíngen indicates excess, and lánang regularity.

Examples:

Lálo et anggapó met so malaém a kuárta. 'Especially as there is not too much money'.

Makapaliklikét ed anián laút lad no waláy gamál tan lálo la no say amagamál et sakéy ya malíngas. 'It's an occasion for rejoicing at harvest time, more so if there is food prepared for the workers and especially so if the one causing the food to be prepared [i.e. the landowner] is a generous fellow'.

Nagkalálo et dakél so agastós ta nátan a panagta ném (nagkalálo=most especially; see note below). 'Our expenses [are going to be] exceptionally heavy now [that it's] harvest time'.

Nátan bálet ta sinmabí lay orán tan lípos met la lalaíngen so pagéy. '[I'm] now [worried] however because the rains and floods have returned again in force [and wreaked havoc upon] the rice crop'.

Tan tugtugáy makálnan láineñg ya añggád simbaán. 'And [the music] is played extremely slowly until [they reach] the church'.

Say managtúnog na sirá so lánañg diá. 'The itinerant fish vendor is often here' i.e. 'comes here regularly'.

Añggapón balót. 'None whatever'.

Agdan balót ikabkabilañgán. 'There is nothing whatever for them to worry about', i.e. 'they haven't a care in the world'.

Láwas sikáy gálgalañgén ... 'You will be honored forever ...'

Ipelagán mo ak la karí (will-be-thrown-down-for by-you I already indeed). 'It's high time you threw something down for me!'

Other devices for indicating intensity, continuity etc. are present in the language. These include affixation (e.g. the prefix nagka- (alternate form agka-) illustrated above with lálo) and

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various forms of reduplication (e.g. reduplication of initial consonant and vowel, as in lalaínngen (from laínngen) in one of the above examples). These processes are discussed in relation to verb and adjective stems, where they are developed most extensively, in the sections devoted to verbs and adjectives, infra.

Adverbs of repetition.

The adverbs signifying repetition are met ‘also, too’ and lamét ‘again’. Both normally follow immediately the word or phrase to which they refer.

Examples:

Kiên moy kapalduá, kién ko met so kapalduá. ‘Half is yours, and I, too, will have half’.

Ontán met ed sikayó (like-that also to you). ‘The same to you’.

Walá irá ed tindáan di nánay. Manáamés met di tátay. ‘Mother is at the market. Father is also bathing’. (met here indicates that both people concerned are absent for the moment).

Mañgán ak labát na púto insán ak lamét onogíp. ‘I’ll just, eat some púto then I’ll sleep again’.

Samár yo kamí lamét. ‘Stop by for us again’.

Sakéy óras lamét so palábasen insán waláy jeepney la lamét (one hour again mkr (topic) will-be-passed then existing + mkr (topic) jeepney already again). ‘Another hour will pass before a jeepney appears again’.

Adverbs of distribution

The adverbs of distribution are bálang ‘each’ and kapág ‘every, whenever’. As with intensity, there are a number of affixes and similar devices which also indicate distribution, especially where verbs and numerals are concerned. These are discussed in relation to the major word classes with which they are associated.

Examples:

Bálang sakéy et manáral na balón ugáli tan kaga-gáwa. ‘Each one will learn new customs and ways of doing things’.

Kapág abóng ya pangidisalán na Santa Cruz so nagsipáraán na kákanén ya ipasipót ed sáray mirásal. ‘Every house [hold] where the Holy Cross is prayed to will [likewise] prepare food to serve to those who come to pray’. (The affix nagsí- is also distributive in character: nagsíparaán means literally ‘will each be a location of preparing’.)

Kapág onlá kayó ... ‘Every time you come ...’

Adverbs of alternation

The adverbs of alternation are dino ‘else’ and añggáno ‘even if, whatever’. The latter, as can be seen from the examples, is as much a conjunction as an adverb.

Examples:

Añggáno naonór kayó, onla kayó (even if will-be-late you, will-come you). ‘Come even if you’re late’.

Añggáno antóy kakúláñgan na niparáan et manbágan manbaga so akaninkianák (even-if what + mkr (topic) inadequacy of what-could-be-prepared-for [anyone] however will-invite + lmk will-invite mkr (subj) one-who-has-birthday). ‘Even if he has nothing much to offer them, the one whose birthday it is will [not hesitate to] invite [as many people as possible]’.

... añggáno láen tayón amín irán kabkábat tayó ‘... even if our acquaintances were to be visited by all of us’.

Walá met iráy manátawag na doktór o díno ners. ‘There would be somebody to call a doctor or else a nurse’.

Akapásen iráya ed mísmon abóñg na akañaríta o díno ed sakéy a sokóñg na solár. ‘They are placed in the storekeeper’s own house, or else in one corner of the lot’.

Adverbs of time

The adverbs of time are: naáni ‘later on’, nimán ‘then’, and sípor ‘since’. Other time words, like kabuasán ‘morning’, nátan ‘now’ are nouns or pro-phrases, and are discussed in relation to other members of those word classes, and also, in Part III, in relation to time phrases. In fully formed sentences naáni and nimán are always followed by a phrase making explicit the time to which they refer.

Examples:

Pinaogíp ko pián agá manábosádo naáni dimád simbaán. 'I put him to sleep so he won't misbehave later on in church' i.e. 'while we're in church'.

Insán waláy baíli naáni no lábi. 'Then there'll be a dance later on in the evening'.

Ándi báli ta onlá ak ed Carmén naáni no ñgárem.

'It doesn't matter because I have to go to Carmen later, in the afternoon', i.e. 'I have to go this afternoon'.

Nimán labát nen kabuasán so insabí mi (then only in morning mkr (topic) was-arrived by-us). 'We arrived only this morning'.

Sinmabí kamí nimán alás dos. 'We arrived at two' (note how both nimán (past) and its counterpart naáni (non-past) are often completely superfluous in an English translation).

Sípor nen sinmabí ak dakél lay atrabájo tayó (since when arrived I much already + mkr (topic) has-been-done by us). 'Since I came, we've accomplished a lot'.

Adverb of respect

The adverb pa, which can usually be translated by the English word 'please', is used in requests directed at older persons or those to whom the speaker wishes to show special courtesy.

Examples:

Ipakomustaan yo ak pa ed sikará (let-be-remembered by-you (resp) I please to her (resp)). 'Please remember me to her' (or' ... to him', '... to them').

Tépaten tayó pa no inér so labáy dan panayamán (will-be-asked by-us pa if where mkr (topic) wanted by-them + Inkr will-be-living-at). 'Perhaps we should enquire where they would like to live'.

Isálik pay siéte (will-be-tried + by-me please + mkr (topic) seven). 'May I try [size] seven'.

Adverb of identity

The adverb of identity, lámañg, serves to closely identify the actor or affected party respectively with an action or state; it also has adversative connotations (e.g. that the action was performed despite intervening adverse circumstances) and can be approximated in English by the combination 'self ... just the same'.

Example:

Ándi bálín nairapán no sikató lamlámañg so makaa-sawá ed sikató (no matter + lnk beset-by-hardships if he (identificational adverb - intensive) mkr (topic) can-marry mkr (ref) her). 'Never mind the hardships as long as he himself can marry her just the same'.

Adverbs of comparison

A number of words may be linked to adjectives to indicate degrees of comparison; most of these words are, however, best regarded as adjectives themselves, as they function in other contexts in the same way as any other adjective. The principal exceptions seem to be laót (often combined with la 'already') which refers to a state of affairs, not necessarily expressed by an adjective, and the adverbs ni and nen, which are used in some constructions to denote comparison of adjectives and activities. The use of laót 'more so' has already been illustrated above (see the second example in the section on adverbs of intensity); these special uses of ni and nen are illustrated in the examples which follow. It should be noted that in the constructions involving adjectives, it is not really the adjectives which are being compared, but the phrases constituting the topic of the sentences having an adjective as the comment.

Examples:

Maóng ni so aysíng nen say sombrero. 'The dress is better than the hat'.

Babáleg ni si Carmelo nen Maria. 'Carmelo is bigger than Maria' (ni in this sentence is emphatic only - babáleg is a reduplicated form of báleg 'big' and already conveys the sense of 'bigger').

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Aliwán maóng so kómiks nen say diário. 'Comics are not better than the newspaper'.

Malínis ya, bálet malinlínis ni man. 'This is clean, but that is cleaner'.

Labáy koy mansúlat nen say manmakínílya. 'I like writing [better] than typing'.

Labáy toy mankómis nen say manpésak. 'She'd rather baby sit than wash [clothes]'.

Adverbs and Adjectives

It can be seen from the 'adverbs' listed in these pages, that what are here called adverbs are mostly particles with functions other than those of marking coordination, subordination, or the relationship of the major parts of the sentence to the verb or the sentence as a whole. While many of those words have English equivalents which are, traditionally at least, regarded by educated English speakers as 'adverbs', there are a great many English adverbs completely unrepresented by Pangasinan equivalents in this list. The reason for this is that 'adverb' has been used merely as a convenient term to cover a number of Pangasinan words with certain features in common in relation to Pangasinan grammar.

The Pangasinan words expressing certain relationships regarded as adverbial in English do not belong with the 'adverbs' already discussed, however, at least as far as Pangasinan is concerned. The same words that 'qualify' nouns, for example, may appear unchanged and in identical constructions with verbs. For purposes of this guide, these qualifier-modifiers have been collectively termed adjectives. In English there is a formal distinction between words modifying verbs (e.g. quickly) and those qualifying nouns (e.g. quick) – in Pangasinan there is none; the same word has both functions.

PRONOUNS, DEMONSTRATIVES AND PRO-PHRASES

The term 'pro-phrase' covers those words which, in the framework of the sentence, represent a complete phrase. It therefore includes pronouns (which do not merely represent single nouns, but rather phrases with a noun as their core), the

pronominal demonstratives, and a variety of other words, particularly interrogatives (e.g. words like ákin 'why' (standing for a reason phrase)). The characteristic of pro-phrases is that they have rather abstract connotations, their meaning consisting as it were of the lowest common denominator of the phrases in whose place they stand. The significant features of the various kinds of pro-phrases in Pangasinan are examined in this section.

Pronouns

Pronouns stand in place of noun phrases - in the sentence aneñgneñg da ka 'You were seen by them', da stands for a phrase identifying the actor - e.g. na sarámay totóo 'by the men', while ka stands for a phrase identifying the subject/addressee who was seen, e.g. si Cora 'Cora'. It will be noted however that the pronoun ka adds some information that the phrase would not normally contain - it is marked for 'person' (addressee), and da also compulsorily contains information often omitted from ordinary phrases - it is marked for 'number' (plural), just as is ka (singular). In fact, most pronouns in Pangasinan contain just four pieces of information - their grammatical function, and whether it also involves the additional element of plural number. There are three Pangasinan pronouns equivalent to English 'we', (or 'us', 'our' as the case may be) - speaker + hearer (dual), speaker + hearer + others (inclusive), and speaker-hearer + others (exclusive). The pronouns relating only to the addressee also have the element of respect linked with that of plurality, so plural forms are also respect forms where a single addressee is involved. So also with the pronoun excluding both speaker and addressee.

Subject/Topic pronouns

The set of pronouns which may function as subjects of verbal sentences and topics of equational sentences (but not as comments in such sentences - see Part III infra) is:

<u>Speaker</u>	<u>Addressee</u>	<u>Plural</u>		
+	-	-	<u>ak</u>	'I'
-	+	-	<u>ka</u>	'You (singular or familiar)'
-	-	-	<u>Ø</u>	'he, she, it' (in combination with <u>ag</u> : -a)

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+	+	-	<u>itá</u>	'we two'
+	-	+	<u>kamí</u>	'we (exclusive)'
+	+	+	<u>itayó</u>	'we (inclusive)',
			<u>ití</u>	
-	+	+	<u>kayó</u>	'you (plural or respect)',
			<u>ki</u>	
-	-	+	<u>irá</u>	'they; he, she (respect)'

The forms ki and ti indicate both familiarity and respect, and are found mainly in mild requests, etc.

Phonological variations

The 'third person singular' pronoun has no phonological form except when following the negative adverb ag-, as noted above. The initial /i/ of itá, itayó, ití, and irá is usually dropped when the preceding word ends in a vowel, and very often in other environments. Some speakers do not use the forms with /is/ in equational sentences. When the /i/ is dropped from irá the /r/ is retained, even if the preceding word ends in a consonant.

Examples:

Iróng kayó, tió. 'Sit down, uncle'.

Manáamés. 'He/she is bathing'.

Agá sinmabí. 'He didn't arrive'.

Masansantíng irá. 'They're very nice'.

Onlá tayó la. 'Let's all go now'.

Akaoléy ki la (happen-to-be-in-charge you already). 'It's up to you'.

Attributive/Non-focus pronouns

Attributive pronouns represent phrases marked by attributive markers with the exception of grammatical objects of verbal sentences - i.e. out-of-focus actors in verbal sentences, and phrases denoting possession and other forms of attribution. They are:

<u>Speaker</u>	<u>Addressee</u>	<u>Plural</u>		
+	-	-	<u>ko</u>	'by me, my'

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-	+	-	<u>mo</u>	'by you, your (intimate)'
-	-	-	<u>to</u>	'by him, by her; his, her, its'
+	+	-	<u>ta</u>	'by us two, our'
+	-	+	<u>mi</u>	'by us, our (excl)'
+	+	+	<u>tayó</u>	'by us, our (incl)'
-	+	+	<u>yo</u>	'by you, your (pl. or resp)'
-	-	+	<u>da</u>	'by them, their; by him, his etc. (resp)'

Phonological changes

When the preceding word ends in a vowel, ko and mo become affixed forms, -k and -m respectively. When following some stems ending in vowels, e.g. amtá 'known', da may assume the form ra; because of its close phonological ties with the preceding word. This form of da is generally treated as an affix and written as part of the word concerned.

Whenever ko is followed by ka or kayó, it assumes the form ta. This rule does not apply where ko is not representing the actor or equivalent element in a passive or other non-active sentence.

Order of subject and attributive pronouns.

When the actor etc. in a passive or other non-active sentence is represented by a pronoun, the attributive pronoun concerned always precedes the subject pronoun if one is present in the sentence. Both attributive and subject pronouns are always placed immediately following the verb. Examples of changes in the order of phrases resulting from the use of pronouns are found in the section on order of phrases in verbal sentences in Part III of the grammar.

Examples:

Anengnéng da kamí. 'We were seen by them'.

Labáy to. '(It) is liked by him'.

Benegán ta ka. 'You'll be left behind by me', i.e. 'I'll be going now'.

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Waláy balón camisadéntrok (existing + mkr (topic) new + lnk shirt + my). 'I have a new shirt'.

Ibák so amígo da. 'My companion is their friend'.

Antará (known + by-them). 'They know'.

Agkó amtá (not + by-me known). 'I don't know'.

Independent pronouns

Independent pronouns occur as comments in equational sentences, and following prepositions, including the benefactive marker pára. They may also occasionally substitute for a possessive phrase including an attributive pronoun. The independent pronouns are listed below in the same order as that in which subject and attributive pronouns were set out above.

<u>siák</u>	'I, me'
<u>siká</u>	'you (intimate)'
<u>sikató</u>	'he, she, it, him, her'
<u>sikatá</u>	'we two, us two'
<u>sikamí</u>	'we, us (exclusive)'
<u>sikatayó</u>	'we, us (inclusive)'
<u>sikayó</u>	'you (plural or respect)'
<u>sikará</u>	'they, them; he, him, she, her (respect)'

Interrogative pronoun

The independent pronouns contain an additional member, unmarked for grammatical person, but referring exclusively to human beings:

<u>siopá</u>	'who, whom' (plural <u>siopará</u>)
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An alternative form, opá, is sometimes encountered, but its use is considered somewhat brusque and the compound with si is preferred in most circumstances. When followed by the linker ya (-n), the interrogative siopá means 'which (person)'.

Examples:

Siák so aneñgnéñg nen Pedro. 'I[’m the one who] was seen by Pedro'.

Sikará di tátay ko. 'He is my father'.

Walád siák may libro. ‘The book is with me’. i.e. I have the book’.

Pára siopá ya? ‘For whom [is] this?’

Siopáy Nana Maria? ‘Which is Nana Maria?’

Siopán Nana Maria? ‘Which Nana Maria?’

Sikatóy inpamatikiáb dad Apollo 9 (it + mkr (topic) caused-to-be launched by-them + mkr (ref) Apollo 9). ‘It is [the reason] why they launched Apollo 9’.

Linma kamí ed sikará. ‘We went to them’ i.e. ‘to their place’.

Demonstratives

Where pronouns are marked for inclusion or exclusion of speaker and addressee, demonstratives are marked for the spatial or temporal relationship obtaining between the speaker and addressee and the phrase they represent (or, in the case of demonstratives used adjectivally, the phrase which they qualify).

Basic demonstratives

The basic demonstratives may occur as topics of equational sentences, subjects of verbal sentences, and as objects in active verbal sentences from which the subject has been shifted to form a comment phrase in an equational sentence of which the remainder of the verbal sentence forms the topic. The basic demonstratives are:

Near Speaker	Near Addressee		
+	-	<u>iyá</u>	‘this’
		<u>iráya</u>	‘these’
-	+	<u>itán</u>	‘that (near you)’
		<u>irátan</u>	‘those (near you)’
-	-	<u>imán</u>	‘that (yonder)’
		<u>iráman</u>	‘those (yonder)’

Phonological changes

The initial /i/ of all these forms is often dropped, especially when the preceding word ends in a vowel.

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Basic demonstratives as adjectives or topic markers.

The combination of basic demonstratives with so to form topic marking particles has been discussed above under the heading of the latter. Occasionally, basic demonstratives may also be used in an adjectival sense, linked to a following noun or noun phrase by ya (-n).

Examples:

Líbro tan. 'That's [a] book'.

Sikató so analíw imán. 'He [is the one who] bought that' (object of active sentence).

Akán mo ya. 'This was eaten by you' (subject of passive sentence).

yan abóñg mi (this + lnk house our) 'this house of ours'

Locative demonstratives

The locative demonstratives represent a phrase indicating location in space and, occasionally, also in time. They are often followed appositively by the locative phrase for which they act as substitutes. Unlike basic demonstratives, locative demonstratives do not have plural forms. The locative demonstratives are:

<u>diá</u>	'here'
<u>ditán</u>	'there (near addressee)'
<u>dimán</u>	'there (yonder)'

Examples:

Nananáp si Pedro na manók dimád hardín. 'Pedro caught the chicken there in the garden' (dimád= dimán ed).

Añggapóy makalabás diá (not-existing + mkr (topic) can-pass here). 'No one can get through (or should trespass) here'.

Diád sábado so isabí to may ogáw. 'The boy will be arriving on Saturday' i.e. 'this Saturday'.

Sikatóy inmogíp ditán. 'He [was the one who] slept there'.

Combination of locative demonstratives and existential adjective

The locative demonstratives may combine with the existential adjective stem wa to form existential adjectives of location:

<u>wadiá</u>	‘existing here’
<u>wadmán</u>	‘existing yonder’
<u>wadtán</u>	‘existing there (near speaker)’

Examples:

Amtak ya wadiá ka. ‘I know that you’re here’.

Antóy wadtán ed búksot mo ey? ‘What [do you] have there in your basket?’

Existential demonstratives

The existential demonstratives form the comment phrase of the equational sentences in which they occur. They are normally used to indicate something which is visible to either the speaker or addressee. The forms concerned are:

<u>Nía</u>	‘[is] here’
<u>Nítan</u>	‘[is] there (near addressee)’
<u>Níman</u>	‘[is] yonder’

Examples:

Nía so kánen mo. ‘Here’s your food’.

Níman so kién mo. ‘Your’s is over there’.

Níman si Miguel ed sokóng. ‘Miguel is over there in the corner’.

Independent demonstratives

The independent demonstratives may form the comment of an equational sentence or occur following the marker ed, identifying the spatial relationship between the comment (or, in the latter case, the phrase substituted for) and the speaker or addressee. They may also be used adjectivally, linked to the phrase qualified by ya. The independent demonstratives are:

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<u>sáya</u>	‘this’
<u>saráya</u>	‘these’
<u>sátan</u>	‘that (near addressee)’
<u>sarátan</u>	‘those (near addressee)’
<u>sáman</u>	‘that (yonder)’
<u>saráman</u>	‘those (yonder)’

Phonological changes

The initial /s/ of these stems may be dropped in any environment. No change in meaning is involved. The marker so does not normally assume the form -y following independent demonstratives.

Components of independent demonstratives and articles.

The independent demonstratives consist of the ‘prefix’ sa followed by a demonstrative stem, with the plural marker ra intervening in the plural forms. The form sa was noted above in connection with articles, of which it forms a primary component, together with the bound form of so (-y) and, where space or plurality is to be indicated, demonstrative and/or the plural marker rá. When a particle follows an independent demonstrative or a single noun preceded by an article, the components of the demonstrative or article concerned may be rearranged, with the particle intervening between sa and the remainder of the compound, as sanítan from sátan ni, sabálet so toó from say toó bálet. Such decomposition of articles and independent demonstratives is not encountered often, but may be employed for reasons of style, emphasis etc.

Examples:

Sáya so abóñg da. ‘This is their house’.

Nanalaskuátro la ed sátan. ‘It’s four o’clock at that’ i.e. ‘when that takes place’.

Nanlapuán yo ed sátan ey? ‘Did you come from that [place]?’

Manlápud sáman ya ágew na binyág ámay ogáw táwagen to irámay aňganák ed sikató so ninoñg tan ninañg. ‘From that day of baptism the child will call those who sponsored him “ninoñg” and “ninañg”’.

Saráyan mamarikít ‘those maidens’

Independent pronouns and demonstrative stems

The third person independent pronouns may sometimes combine with demonstrative stems and function as independent demonstrative pronouns, but referring only to inanimate objects, or states, conditions, etc.

Example:

Sikatóya so labáy ko. ‘This [is what] I like’.

Demonstratives of similarity

The demonstratives of similarity are adverb-like elements which may occur before referential phrases; they may also constitute the comment phrase of an equational sentence. These demonstratives are;

<u>onyá</u>	‘like this’
<u>ontán</u>	‘like that (near or affecting addressee)’
<u>onmán</u>	‘like that (distant)’

Examples:

Onyá so ginawá to, aliwán ontán. ‘What he did was like this, not like that’.

Ontán sírin makapánneneñgnéñg irán amín ed sáyan begtá (like-that surely, can-be-seeing they + lnk all at this + lnk get-together). ‘In that way, everyone gets to see each other on such an occasion’.

Talagán ontán so ugáli na Pangasinánse. ‘The custom of the Pangasinan people is really like that’.

Ontán met ed siká. ‘The same to you’.

Pro-phrases of time

The temporal pro-phrases are kapigán ‘when?’ and nátan ‘now, today’. Like other interrogative pro-phrases, kapigán is usually encountered as the topic of an equational sentence.

Examples:

Kapigáy isabí yo ey? ‘When did you arrive?’

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Kapigán so labáy mon iakár ey? ‘When would you like to go?’

Matálag lay angkabáleg na sirá nátan. ‘The larger fish are scarce now’.

Pánon nátan ey? (how now eh?). ‘What happens now’, ‘What will we/they do now?’ etc.

Antóy ágew nátan? ‘What is the day today?’

Interrogative pro-phrases

A number of interrogative pro-phrases have been discussed above under other headings. Those yet to be dealt with and the types of phrase they substitute for are:

<u>iné</u>	‘where’ (locative phrases)
<u>antó</u>	‘what’ (phrase with non-personal noun as nucleus)
<u>opá</u>	‘what (person)’ (phrase with personal noun as nucleus)
<u>dínan</u>	‘which’ (phrase modified by adjective or identified by demonstrative)
<u>ákin</u>	‘why’ (reason phrases)
<u>pánon</u>	‘how’ (phrase or sentence constituting explanation)
<u>Pigá</u>	‘how many, how much’ (numeral, or phrase with noun of quantity as nucleus or modified by adjective of quantity)

All of these words typically form the comment phrase of an equational sentence. As noted earlier, opá is not often used, generally being supplanted by the independent pronoun siopá. The pro-numeral pigá may be inflected for multiplicity by affixing -ra: pigára ‘how many (items)?’ Pigá may also be affixed with any of the affixes which are associated with numeral stems. These are discussed and exemplified in the section on numerals, infra.

Iné is sometimes used in a non-interrogative sense, preceded by no ‘if’, to indicate an unknown present or future location.

Antó ‘what’ is sometimes phonologically bound to a following demonstrative stem, as in the word antótan ‘what’s that?’ The resulting meaning is simply a combination of the

meanings of the interrogative and the demonstrative concerned, except in idioms like añggán antótan (throughout what's that) 'very much indeed', 'anything at all'.

Examples:

Tagá inér ka? 'Where are you from?'

Inér so pañganán nen Pedro may mansánas? 'Where does Pedro eat the apples?'

No inér so pateyán mo, ditán so pateyán ko. 'Where you die, there I shall die'.

Antóy gustom ya inumén? 'What would you like to drink?'

Antóy ñgarán mo? 'What is your name?' (some speakers prefer siopá to antó here).

Labáy mi añggán antótan. 'I like everything (of that kind) without reservation'.

Dínan so labáy yo? 'Which do you want?'

Ákin et wadiá ka lamét? 'Why are you here again?'

Antón gátas so labáy yo ey? 'What [kind of] milk do you want?'

Ákin agmakasabí may ajénti diá ed sikayó? 'Why can't the agent come here to you?'

Pánon kaatagéy may salomági? 'How high is the tamarind (tree)?'

Pánoy bilbiláy natan ey? 'How's life now, eh?' i.e. 'How are things?'

Panón tayón mibaíli et añggapóy kaparíja tayó? 'How will we dance when we have no partners?'

Pigáy óltimo yo ey? 'How much is your last (price)?' i.e. '... lowest price?'

Pigáy bolán to la si Berting? 'How many months [old] is Berting already?'

Pigáray inanák mod binyág ey? 'How many godchildren do you have?' (inanák ed binyág= 'godchild')

NOUNS

Semantically, as many generations of school children have learned, nouns are names of people, places, things and qualities. In Pangasinan, nouns may be distinguished from other word classes by certain formal qualities: basic nouns may be inflected for multiplicity, but not for time or intensity. Derived nouns may retain the latter features, but this is a result of their transference from one word-class to another through the use of a derivative affix. As a class, nouns may be preceded by articles and form the center of an attributive construction with adjectives, pronouns, or other nouns; they may also be marked as topics of equational sentences, subjects of verbal sentences, as well as forming the nucleus of the actor, object, referent, benefactive, agent, time and other phrases in verbal sentences, and the comment of an equational sentence.

Structure of noun stems

Nouns may be grouped structurally into two classes - basic nouns and derived nouns.

Basic nouns

Basic nouns consist of an unaffixed root; they may be either simple (i.e. irreducible to any smaller non-phonological entities), or compound. Compound nouns are composed of two roots fused into one, and operating as a unit.

Examples

Simple basic nouns are: asó 'dog', ogáw 'child', aná~~k~~ 'offspring', ermén 'sorrow', amígo 'friend', báley 'town', biláy 'life'.

Compound basic nouns are rarely encountered; the most common one is probably: balólakí 'bachelor' (cf. baló 'widower' + lakí 'male')

Derived nouns

Derived nouns consist of a stem, often verb or adjective stem, to which have been added one or more derivative affixes, as for example inasín 'marinated fish sauce' from -in- plus asín 'salt', mangasawá 'a person about to be married' from maN-

plus asawá 'spouse', pomepesák 'washerwoman' from -om- plus pepesák 'is washing', and kaatagéy 'height' from ka- plus atagéy 'high'. Further examples of derived nouns are given below, in the list of noun-deriving affixes.

Grammatical categories of nouns

Nouns are divided into two main categories grammatically -- personal nouns and common nouns. This division is reflected in the grammar by the use of personal markers with personal nouns, and a different set of markers with common nouns, as has been noted in the section on markers above.

Personal nouns consist of proper names, and certain kinship terms (e.g. akuláw 'old woman, wife', iná, 'mother', amá 'father', tátay 'father', nánay 'mother', bái 'grandmother', lákí 'grandfather', asawá 'spouse') as well as a few titles of important offices, when these are used as terms of reference for the holder thereof (e.g. juéz 'judge', pári 'priest').

All other nouns are common nouns. Within the group of common nouns, however, other grammatically relevant categories appear. The most important of these are time nouns (e.g. sábado 'Saturday', ugtó 'noon', ñgárem 'afternoon'), abstract nouns (e.g. ermén 'sorrow'), nouns of space or position (e.g. pegléy 'middle', benég 'back', tápew 'top'); other groupings of nouns are also evident for certain purposes - nouns representing monetary units (e.g. píso 'peso', salapí 'fifty centavos') may be affixed distributively with maN- 'apiece', for example, while many body parts and nouns whose denotata are closely associated with the person have plurals formed by the affix ka-...-an rather than by reduplication of the stem. These major and minor groupings are illustrated in reference to the nominal affixes listed later in this section.

Plurality (multiplicity) in nouns

Simple plurality is not generally indicated except by means of numerals (e.g. duáran toó (two + lnk man) 'two men'. The plural forms therefore indicate many objects - more than two or three - the exact boundary will vary from speaker to speaker. The method of indicating such multiple plurality is dependent on the noun stem itself. Basically there are three processes - stress shift, reduplication of part of the stem, and affixation - two of which may be combined in some cases. Which par-

ticular method is employed with a given stem is generally hard to determine by general rules, although a few such rules are stated below; for most stems it is necessary to learn the plural form by experience.

Agreement of articles, demonstrative adjectives, verbs and nouns.

Where plural inflections are concerned, a demonstrative adjective, article, or marker must be inflected for plurality when it is in construction with a plural noun – e.g. sarayan totoó (these + lnk men) ‘these men’; in other circumstances, plurality, if it is to be indicated at all, may be a feature only of the article or marker preceding the noun in the noun phrase (e.g. sarámay toó (the (there) man) ‘the men (there)’, irámay toó (mkr (pl) man) ‘the men’. When a verb is inflected for plurality of action, at least the article marking an apposed subject, or the marker preceding a post-verbal subject, must be marked for plurality (e.g. naníinóm irámay toó (did-multiply-drink mkr (pl) man) ‘the men were (all) drinking (frequently)’, saráy toó so naníinóm diá (the (pl) man mkr (topic) did-multiply-drink here) ‘The men were drinking ... here’.

Devices for indicating plurality in nouns

Shift in stress

Some nouns are pluralized by shifting the stress from the last to the first syllable of the root. In most of these nouns, a portion of the root is also reduplicated. Only a few nouns belong to this group, the majority of which are kinship terms.

Examples:

anáḱ ‘child (offspring), ának ‘children’;

ogáw ‘child’, agógaw ‘children’;

agí ‘younger brother etc.’, agági ‘younger brothers etc.’;

toó ‘man, person’, totoó ‘men, persons’;

polís ‘policeman’, popólis ‘policemen’;

duég ‘carabao’, deréweg ‘carabaos’.

Reduplication of first consonant and following vowel

Quite a number of nouns form their plural reduplicating the first consonant and following vowel (usually but not always the first two phonemes in the stem); there does not seem to be any other special feature shared by these nouns.

Examples:

amígo 'friend', amimígo 'friends';

amíga 'female friend', amimíga 'female friends';

kanáyon 'relative', kakanáyon 'relatives';

kúya 'older brother or man of same generation', kukúya 'older brother etc.';

maéstro 'teacher', mamaéstro 'teachers';

dalikán 'clay stove', daralikán 'clay stoves';

líbro 'book', 1i1líbro 'books';

nióg 'coconut', ninióg 'coconuts';

pláto 'plate', papláto 'plates';

láta 'can', laláta 'cans';

báso 'glass', babáso 'glasses';

lópot 'rag', lolópot 'rags';

rósas 'flower', rorósas 'flowers';

bálbas 'beard', babálbas 'beards'.

Reduplication of initial (C)VC

Another large group of nouns are pluralized by reduplication of the initial consonant (if any) and the following vowel and consonant. While these words have little semantic similarity, most of them are either two-syllable words with either medial consonant clusters or final consonants (or both), or else have more than two syllables.

Examples:

balíta 'news', balbalíta;

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báley 'town', balbáley;
paltóg 'gun', palpaltóg;
kábat 'acquaintance', kabkábat;
sondalo 'soldier', sonsondalo;
kandíng 'goat', kankandíng;
bigóti 'basket', bigbigóti;
lúpa 'face', luplúpa;
bárrío /báryo/ 'ward', barbárrío;
áteñg 'parent', atáteñg;
atchí 'older sister or woman of same generation', achatchí;
báka 'cow, bull', bakbáka;
saklór 'horn (of animal)', saksaklór;
takláy 'arm', taktakláy.

Reduplication of initial (C)VCV

Another group of nouns, including many denoting objects or animals having close connections with the domestic unit, as well as the words for fingers and toes, have plural forms with reduplication of the initial consonant, if any, and the following vowel, consonant, and vowel. These words are mostly two syllabled with the structure (C)VCV(C).

Examples:

asó 'dog', asóasó;
pusá 'cat', pusápusá;
otót 'mouse, rat', otóotót;
atép 'roof', atépatép;
lusór 'cup', lusólusór;
sañgá 'branch', sañgásañgá;
aníno 'shadow', aníaníno;
bakés 'monkey', bakébakés;
manók 'chicken', manómanók;

bañgá ‘water jar’, bañgábañgá;
lusók ‘abdomen’, lusólusók;
pisíng ‘vegetable’, pisípisíng;
baráñg ‘bolo’, barábaráñg;
kawés ‘dress’, kawékawés;
tamuró ‘forefinger’, tamutamuró;
pañgándo ‘middle finger’, pañgápañgándo;
pañgánsi ‘ring finger’, pañgápañgánsi;
kikíng ‘little finger’, kikíkikíng;
gamét ‘finger’, gamégamét.

Affixation with -(e)s

Many nouns derived from Spanish (and also from English) form plurals with -es following a consonant and -s following a vowel. Sometimes the stem of the word is also reduplicated, although this is not essential.

Examples:

papél ‘paper’, papéles;
senadór ‘senator’, senadóres;
líder ‘leader’, líderes;
amígo ‘friend’, amimígos;
cobradór ‘collector’, cobradóres;
juéz /hwÉs/ ‘judge’, juéces;
turísta ‘tourist’, turístas.

Affixation with ka-...-án

The affix ka-...-án indicates, among other things, generality, and in this sense may also serve as a plural affix for certain nouns, most of which indicate body parts or objects closely connected with the person. When affixed with ka-...-án, stress on the root is normally shifted to the penultimate syllable in roots normally carrying stress on the final syllable.

Examples:

abóñg ‘house’, kaáboñgán ‘houses, group of houses’;

matá ‘eye’, kamátaán;

salí ‘foot’, kasálián;

kutú ‘louse’, kakútuán;

eléñg ‘nose’, kaéleñgán;

dapán ‘(sole of) foot’, kadápanán;

bató ‘stone’, kabátoán;

layág ‘ear’, kaláyagán;

áteñg ‘parent’, kaáteñgán (also atáteñg);

kukú ‘nail’, kakuán (root reduced to one syllable);

limá ‘hand’, kalímaán.

Affixes associated with noun stems

It is convenient to divide the affixes associated with noun stems (apart from the plural formatives already discussed) into two main groups, those which are affixed to nouns, and those which are affixed to other parts of speech to transform them into nouns. We may call these affixes ‘nominal’ and ‘nominalizing’ respectively. The affixes concerned are listed alphabetically under the appropriate heading, together with an explanation and examples of the nouns formed through their use.

Nominal affixes

Reduplication of initial CVC- or whole root: ‘figure of, toy...’ e.g. tóotóo (toó ‘man’ – note stress shift) ‘figure of a man’, ogáwogáw (ogáw ‘child’) ‘figure of a child’, abóñgáboñg (abóñg ‘house’) ‘toy house’, kabkabáyo (kabáyo ‘horse’) ‘toy horse’, lamlami-(lamisáan ‘table’) ‘toy table’. sáan

Akan- denotes ownership (is a variant of makan-, q.v.) e.g. akaninkianák (inkianák ‘birthday’) one who is having a birthday’.

-In- frequentative, with time nouns (whole stem is repeated except with days of the week) e.g. binolánbólán (bolán ‘month’) ‘monthly, every month’; kinábuakábuasán (kabuasán ‘morning’) ‘every morning’; inágewágew (ágew ‘day’) ‘daily’; jínuéves (juéves ‘Thursday’) ‘every Thursday’; sinábado (sábado ‘Saturday’) ‘every Saturday’. form ni-, e.g. nilábilábi Before /l/, -in- takes the ‘nightly, every night’.

Inká- occurs with noun stems, and also nominalizes adjective stems, indicating ‘things or activities pertaining to a past state’ (cf. ka- in the sense of ‘pertaining to a non-past state’ – see below). Examples are: inkamasikén (masikén ‘old man’) ‘old age’; inkaakuláw (akuláw ‘old woman’) ‘old age’; inkaogáw (ogáw ‘child’) ‘(things of) childhood’; inkamarikít (marikít ‘maiden’) ‘(e.g. joys of) maidenhood’; inkaata-géy (atagéy ‘high’) ‘height’; inkadiós (Diós ‘God’) ‘divinity’.

Ka- (plural kaka-) ‘person or thing proximate to person etc. referred to’ – most often encountered with nouns of location, but not exclusively so; e.g. kaaráp (aráp ‘front’) ‘one in front’; kabenég (benég ‘back ‘one back to back with ...’; kaábay (ábay ‘side, proximity’) ‘one near, beside, neighboring; neighbor’.

Ka- (pertaining to, at that stage’ (where a past state is concerned, the prefix inka- is used, as above), e.g. kaatagéy (atagéy ‘high’); ‘height’; kaogáw ‘childhood’; kasakít (sakít ‘ill health’) ‘(state of) sickness’. As with inka- this affix also acts as a nominalizing affix with certain adjective stems.

Ka...-an with nouns denoting state or condition, and certain verb and adjective stems with similar semantic components: ‘source of’; e.g. kaermenán (ermén ‘sorrow’) ‘cause of sorrow’; kaabálaán (abála ‘busy, occupied’) ‘cause of delay’; kaliñguanán (liñguan ‘unmindful’) ‘cause of forgetting or unmindfulness’; kaambágelan (ambágel ‘crazy’) ‘cause of lunacy’.

Ka...-án with certain other nouns: ‘associated with’ e.g. ka-baleyán (bárley ‘town’) ‘person from the isipán (isíp ‘mind’) ‘voice, same town or province’; kaisipán opinion’.

Ka- + CVC- ... -án with nouns of location: ‘at the very spot’, e.g. kapegpegleyán ‘right in the middle’, katagtageyán ‘at the highest point’; kaluyluyagán (luyág ‘province’) ‘within the province’.

Kada- frequentative, with certain nouns of time (equivalent to -in- above), e.g. kadaogtó ‘every noon’ kadakabuasán ‘every morning’.

Magin- ‘about to or intending to attain a state’, e.g. magin-doctór ‘one about to be a doctor’, studying to be a doctor’; this affix is more restricted in use than the affixes maN- and man-, which are similar in meaning but more freely combinable with other nouns; magin- seems to be used only with a few nouns indicating professions, as doctor, in the above example, abogádo ‘lawyer’, and dentísta ‘dentist’.

Makan- ownership, e.g. makankién (kién ‘thing’) ‘owner’; makanmanók (manók ‘chicken’) ‘owner of chicken(s)’; makan-pónti (pónti ‘banana’) ‘owner of banana(s)’.

MaN- distributive, with nouns representing monetary units, e.g. mamíso ‘one peso apiece’; mamíntiṅ (bíntiṅ ‘twenty-five centavos’) ‘fifty centavos apiece’.

MaN-, man- ‘one about to be’, e.g. mandoctór ‘one about to be a doctor’, maṅgabóṅg (abóṅg ‘house’) ‘one about to put up a house’; maṅgatulaṅgán (katúlaṅgán ‘(one’s) parents-in-law’) ‘one about to become a child-in-law (i.e. about to get married)’; maṅganák ‘one asked to be a sponsor at baptism, wedding etc.’; maṅgasawa (asawá ‘spouse’) ‘about to be married’.

PaN-...-an with nouns denoting special occasions – ‘that which is necessary or useful for the occasion’, e.g. pamaskoan (pasko ‘Christmas’) ‘something (usually food) for celebrating Christmas with’.

Pinagka- ‘serving as’ e.g. pinagkabáso (báso ‘glass’) ‘something serving as a glass’; pinagkadiṅgdíṅg (diṅgdíṅg ‘wall’) ‘something serving as a wall [e.g. a screen]’; pinagkadúlsi (dúlsi ‘sweet’) ‘something serving as a dessert’; pinagkabaáw (baáw ‘cooked rice’) ‘something serving as rice [e.g. bread, corn]’.

San- unity (dual; more than two: san- + (C)V- e.g. sanamá (amá ‘father’) ‘father and child’, sanaamá ‘father and children’; saniná (iná ‘mother’) ‘mother and child’, saniiná ‘... and children’; sankaáro (kaáro ‘friend’) ‘two friends, a couple’, sankaaro ‘several friends’; sanláki ‘... and grandchildren’; sanbái (bái ‘grandmother’) grandmother and grandchild’, sanbabái ‘... and grandchildren’.

Sanka- proximity, self-containedness, e.g. sankaa- kwál (akwál 'lap') 'something right on one's lap'; sankaábay 'something stuck on one, or right by one's side'; sankakamót (kamót 'handful') 'exactly one handful'.

Nominalizing affixes

(C)V- + -en or -an (with stress usually shifted to ultimate syllable of unaffixed verb stem) denotes objects intended for or about to be involved in the action denoted by the verb, e.g. gagawáen (gawá 'do, make') 'something to do'; lolotóen (lotó 'cook') 'something to cook'; pepesákan (pesák 'wash') 'washing'; totogtógen (togtóg 'play musical instrument') 'something to be played'; iinómen (inóm 'drink') 'something to drink'; bibinyágan (binyág 'baptize') 'someone eligible for baptism, or about to be baptized'; kakalóten (kalót 'to roast') 'something for roasting [e.g. corn too mature to be boiled]'.

Akai-...-an - see ki-...-an below

-An with verb stems, indicates object on or location in which activity is performed (also occurs, with same meaning, with a few noun stems), e.g. dasálan (dasál 'to pray') 'prayer book'; anapán (anáp 'to seek; make a living') 'source of livelihood'; kansiónan (kansión 'to sing') 'singing contest'; biñngoán (biñngo 'bingo') 'bingo parlor'; balsákan (balsák 'count with beads') 'rosary beads'.

-In- with verb stems, and occasionally noun stems, denotes 'something having undergone the process indicated by the verb (or noun)' e.g. pinaór (paór 'to make nipa into roofing') 'nipa thatch'; ináro (áro 'to love') 'beloved, sweetheart'; pinalsá (palsá 'to create') 'creature'; inasín (asín 'salt') 'sauce made from marinated fish'.

Inka- see nominal affixes

Inki- with verb stems, indicates 'the way the process was performed' (non-past form is ki- - see below) e.g. inkisúlat 'the way something was written'; inkibórda 'the way it was embroidered' - maóñg so inkibórda na ñgarán mo ed dañganán (good mkr way- was-embroidered of name your on pillow) 'the embroidery of your name on the pillow was well done'. With the root aná́k ('child; to bear a child') inki- forms the word inkianák 'birthday'.

Ka- (with adjective stems) see nominal affixes

Ka- with verb stems, indicates (a) another party involved in the action at the time spoken of (cf. ka-...-án below), e.g. ka-totoñgtóñg (toñgtóñg ‘converse’) ‘the one being spoken to’, (b) the event in relation to those involved in it, e.g. kapapawáy (pawáy ‘emerge’) ‘the time when (e.g. a congregation or audience) emerge’, (c) the occurrence of the event itself, e.g. kasómpal ‘when (it) is finished’.

Ka-...-án (with adjectives) see also nominal affixes

Ka-...-án with adjectives denoting qualities or states of life signifies abstraction, e.g. kaogesán (ogés ‘evil’) ‘(the state of being) evil’; kapobreán (póbre ‘poor’) ‘poverty’; kayamanán (yáman ‘having ‘goodness’ wealth’) wealth; kamaoñgán (maoñg ‘goo kaabigán (ábíg ‘good’) ‘sufficiency’.

Ka-...-án with verb stems, indicates persons or objects normally associated with an action, e.g. kapilpilítan (pílit ‘have obligations’) ‘obligations, things which must be done’; katabájoán (trabájo ‘work’) ‘workmates’; kagawaán (gawá ‘to make’) ‘tools’; kabasaán (bása ‘to read’) ‘what one likes to read’; kaelekán (elék ‘to laugh’) ‘something to laugh about’.

Ki- with verb stems, denotes the way something will be or is to be done (non-past counterpart of inki-), e.g. kisúlat ‘the way it is to be written’, kibórda ‘the way it will be embroidered’.

Ki- + CV- + shift of stress to penultimate syllable of verb stem; ki- + reduplication of entire verb stem. Both these formatives denote great or excessive activity, e.g. kibabátik, ki-batíkbátik (batík ‘run’) ‘excessive running’ – say kibabátik nen Lisa ed asó so akapeliyan to (the much-running of Lisa with dog mkr circumstance-of-happening-to-be-sprained by-her) ‘Lisa’s running too much with the dog was responsible for her sprain’; kilolóksó, kiloksólóksó (loksó ‘jump’) ‘great amount of jumping about’.

Ki-...-an (past form akai-...-an) with verb stems – meaning seems to vary from manner, e.g. kiakarán (akár ‘move’) ‘way of doing something; outcome’, to location, e.g. kitatakán (taták ‘publish’) ‘where something was published’.

Manag-, manaN- – these affixes indicate the performer of an action connected with his occupation (cf. -om- below), e.g. managtónog (tónog ‘to go from house to house’) ‘itinerant vendor’;

managkaritón (karitón ‘to cart’) ‘one who sells wares loaded on a carabao cart’; manamalsá (palsá ‘to create’) ‘the Creator’; manamianák (pianák ‘assist at delivery’) ‘midwife’.

Mañga- with adjective roots: having an abundance of the quality concerned, e.g. mañgagána (gána ‘being pretty’) ‘pretty among the prettiest’; mangaogés ‘bad among the bad’; mañgarónoñg (dónoñg ‘good qualities’) ‘best of the best’. This affix seems to function as a nominalizing and intensifying replacement of the adjectival formative ma-, q.v.

-Om- + CV- (stress on penultimate syllable) with verb roots, denotes one who performs the action professionally, e.g. pomepésak (pesák ‘to wash’) ‘washerwoman’; domáralos (dalós ‘to farm’) ‘farmer’; lomaláko (láko ‘to sell’) ‘merchant vendor’; somasáliw (salíw ‘to buy’) (professional) buyer’; lomalángoy (lañgóy ‘to swim’) ‘swimmer (e.g. athlete)’; domaráet (dáet ‘to sew’) ‘dressmaker’.

Paka- with verb stems signifies abilities or qualities not directly under the individual’s control, e.g. pakaneñgnéñg (neñgnéñg ‘to see’) ‘eyesight’; pakananám (nanám ‘to taste’) ‘(one’s) taste (in food etc.)’.

Panag-, panaN-, panañgi- nominalizing verb stems, indicating the occasion or circumstances under which the action is or was performed. The three affixes replace or correspond to the active verbal affixes man-, maN- and mangi- respectively (q.v.). Examples are: panag-dasál (dasál ‘to pray’) (circumstances of) praying’ – (Dapod) panagdasál na iná to maóñg met si Pedro (Because-of) praying of mother his good also mkr Pedro). ‘Through the prayers of his mother Pedro is good again’; panagsirá (sirá ‘to eat meat or fish’) ‘(circumstances of) eating’ – Panagsirá na karní binmáleg si Pedro (eating of meat mkr (topic) became-big mkr Pedro). ‘Eating meat made Pedro grow’; panagtaném (taném ‘to plant’) ‘planting season’; panagpasalóg (pasalóg ‘cause to water’) ‘time for watering (plants)’; panañgási (kási ‘mercy’) ‘(occasion of) mercy’ – Panañgási Diós matabá met (mercy [of] God healthy also) ‘Through the mercy of God he’s healthy too; it’s God’s mercy that he’s healthy too’; panaňgán (kan ‘to eat’) ‘(circumstances of) eating’; pananalíta (salíta ‘speak’) ‘(circumstances – e.g. way of) speaking’; panaňgipatáwal (patáwal ‘cause to bargain’) ‘(way, circumstances of) bargaining’. Note that the ‘instrumental’ conno-

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tations of some of these combinations with panag- etc. is a feature of English translation and not directly implied by the Pangasinan affix.

Para- applied to verb stems: 'one responsible for', e.g. paraasól (asól 'fetch water') 'one responsible for fetching water'; parasúrat 'one responsible for writing'; paralínis (línis 'to clean') 'one responsible for cleaning'. This affix is not used, however, to indicate a regular occupation; in such cases -om- (q.v.) is employed.

Pi- affixed to verb stems (only the modal affix pa- may intervene between pi- and the root) implies a reciprocal or mutual relationship between the parties in the action, one of whom may be in a subordinate or disadvantageous relationship to the other. When not preceded by other affixes, pi acts as a noun formative indicating an action sought, desired etc. from or involving a third party with the power to bring it about. Examples: pikási (kási 'mercy') 'mercy sought'; pida-sál (dasál 'pray') 'prayer made to or for'; piráwat (dáwat 'favor') 'favor sought (from)' - Antóy piráwat tayó ed Diós ya katawán nátan ey? (what + mkr favor-sought our from God lnk almighty now eh?) 'What favor should we seek from God at this time?'

Multiple classification of word roots.

Just as in English, where 'good' can be an adjective ('a good boy') or a noun ('good and evil'), and 'run' a noun ('he made one run') or a verb ('run, rabbit, run!'), many basic nouns in Pangasinan have forms identical with verbs, and, to a lesser extent, adjectives, to the members of which latter parts of speech the nouns concerned are also obviously semantically related. It is necessary therefore to distinguish between the concept of root, and that of part of speech. Part of speech is determined by how a word is used in relation to other words - in the case of 'basic' words (i.e. unaffixed roots) those with a wide variety of uses may belong to several parts of speech. Their classification at any particular time depends on the paradigm in which they happen to be found - their classification in abstract terms is based on the paradigms within which they may function.

Many words, of course, belong to only one part of speech, and it is through comparing the most versatile roots with the least versatile that we can come up with some kind of classification which is both useful for the student and relevant to the

structure of the language. Through the process of derivation, however, almost any word may change class, so when a particular root is said to be a verb, a noun, or an adjective, what is really meant is that it is basically a verb, noun, or adjective, but may become transformed to another part of speech when affixed with appropriate derivational affixes.

To give just a few examples, the following words are basically nouns: bakés 'monkey', bakokól 'turtle', espíritu 'spirit', grípo 'faucet', convénto 'rectory', masitéra 'flower pot', saklór 'horn of animal'; word roots which are basically verb stems are: koróñg 'crawl', ñgodnór 'fall on one's face', la 'to come or go', kan 'to eat', frito 'to fry', potér 'to cut', inúm 'to drink'; basic adjectives include daisét 'few', konténto 'content', báleg 'big', melág 'small', tiñgit 'tiny'; word roots which may function as either noun or verb stems are: báka 'head of cattle; to use cattle as work animals', eyéy 'protest; to demonstrate', likét 'joy; to be happy', líko 'curve; to veer', ponás 'to wipe; sponge bath', pústa 'bet; to place a bet', remé-dio 'remedy; to cure'.

The semantic content of the root plays an important role in determining the potential use of a word root, although it is only when the root is actually used that this potentiality is realized and a classification can be made. Thus simple names of objects are likely to be mainly nouns (but cf. báka above), words denoting processes are likely to be verbs, and if the process is likely to be 'named', they will often function as nouns as well (cf. examples above), words with descriptive content are likely to be adjectives. Where naming, activity, and/or description are entangled, so to speak, there is a greater likelihood of a root belonging to more than one word class than when one of these components is dominant.

Non-productive affixes

There are a number of affixes encountered in Pangasinan nouns which may be regarded as 'non-productive', i.e. they are 'fossilized' in the words in which they are found, and not normally used with other words, but still retain some apparent meaning. Some of these affixes are the result of a word inflected as a verb or adjective having come to be used as, e.g. a noun without having undergone regular derivational affixation. Others are importations from Spanish, and are found on a small number of words, most of which, however, are of fairly frequent occurrence in speech or writing. One of these, the plural for-

mative -(e)s, has already been dealt with above; a representative selection of the remaining commonly encountered Spanish-derived nominal affixes is given below.

-a feminine termination – e.g. amíga ‘female friend’, maéstra ‘female teacher’, kaparéja ‘female partner’, doctóra ‘female physician’. (cf. -o below).

-ádo, -ada similar in meaning to English suffix -ate, e.g. abogádo ‘lawyer (i.e. advocate)’, delegádo ‘delegate’, estádo ‘state’; also an adjective formative, similar to English -ed: some ‘adjectives’ formed in this manner are now nouns – e.g. empleádo ‘employee (employed)’, diputádo ‘deputy (deputed)’, entabládo ‘stage, platform from which speeches are given etc.’.

-adór similar to English -or, -ador signifying person charged with performing action etc., e.g. cobradór ‘collector’, embajadór ‘ambassador’, gobernadór ‘governor’.

-áno, -ána (f) affixed to place names, signifies ‘native or national of’ – e.g. Americáno ‘American’, Americána ‘American woman’, Illocáno ‘person whose ancestors were natives of the Illocos region’.

-éño / -Ényo/, eña (f) affixed to place names, signifies person coming from that place: Pampangéño ‘person from Pampanga province’, Cavitéño ‘person from Cavite’, Manileña ‘woman from Manila’. (This affix retains some measure of productivity).

[-en]se this back formation from the plural form of the Latin affix -ensis ‘person from’ is commonly used to indicate a person from Pangasinan, especially a Pangasinan-speaking person: Pangasinánse (pl. Panga- sinánses).

-(e)riá indicates location, much the same as -ery in English ‘eatery’ etc., e.g. pansiteriá ‘restaurant (i.e. place where pansit is made)’, panaderiá ‘bakery’ (Spanish pan ‘bread’); funerariá ‘funeral parlor’. Speakers with some knowledge of Spanish will usually stress the i, as in Spanish, giving e.g. pansiteriá.

-éro, -éra (f) like English -er, -ier etc., e.g. ingeniéro /in-hEnyÉro/ ‘engineer’, cajéro ‘cashier’, labandéra ‘laundry woman’, cartéro ‘mail man’ (Spanish cartá ‘letter’), cusinéro, cusinéra ‘cook’ (kusína ‘kitchen’); cf. also maéstro, maéstra ‘teacher’, minístro ‘minister’.

-ílo /-ílyo/ diminutive, e.g. ganchílo ‘crocheting hook’ (Spanish gancho ‘hook’).

-ísmo like English -ism, e.g. comunismo ‘communism’, protestantismo ‘protestantism’.

-ista (m. or f.) like English -ist, e.g. turista ‘tourist’, comunista ‘communist’, especialista ‘specialist’.

-íto, -íta diminutive, e.g. platíto ‘small plate’ (plato ‘plate’), cucharíta ‘small spoon’ (cuchara ‘spoon’).

-ménto like English -ment, e.g. documento ‘document’, departaménto ‘department’.

-o masculine termination, e.g. maestro ‘male teacher’, amigo ‘male friend’; although the termination -o is somewhere also used to denote mixed sexes, very often Pangasinan speakers will use stems inflected with both terminations to convey this idea, e.g. amimígas tan amimígos to ‘his friends’ – literally ‘his female friends and male friends’.

-ón large size, e.g. cucharón ‘big serving spoon’, karitón ‘cart pulled by carabao’.

-(c)ión like the corresponding English affixes ending in -ion, e.g. revolucion ‘revolution’, inbitasión ‘invitation’, estación ‘station’, elección /Eleksyón/ ‘election’, educación ‘education’, ocupación ‘occupation’, oración ‘(time for saying) the angelus’ (cf. ‘oration’).

ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are descriptive elements which are linked to the nouns, verbs, or phrases which they modify by the linker ya; they may also form the comment phrase of an equational sentence. They are formally distinguishable from nouns in that, unlike the latter, adjectives may be inflected for intensity (including ‘comparison’). Adjectives may be separated from verbs in that whereas verbs are inflected for tense and aspect, these categories of inflection are not found with adjective stems.

Structure of adjective stems

Like nouns, adjectives may be either basic or derived. While basic adjectives certainly account for a good proportion of the most frequently used adjectives in Pangasinan speech and

writing, the great majority of adjectival forms are derivational in origin, with the prefixes an-, ma-, and to a lesser extent a- accounting for most of them.

Examples:

Basic adjectives include bálo ‘new’, dakél ‘many’, daisét ‘few’, tíngit ‘tiny’, melág ‘small’, báleg ‘big’, kalág ‘small’, guápo ‘handsome’.

Derived adjectives are amputí (an- + putí ‘fairness’) ‘fair, beautiful’, masamít (ma- + samít ‘sweetness’) ‘sweet’, am-balangá ‘red’, andekét ‘black’, atagéy (a- + tagéy ‘height’) ‘tall, high’, makulí ‘industrious’ (many more examples are given in the list of derivational affixes below).

Constructions involving adjectives

The use of the linker ya in conjoining an adjective and a noun or verb has already been illustrated in the section on particles (above), as has the use of adjectives in ‘comparative’ constructions marked by particles ni and nen. Three other types of construction will be briefly discussed here – phrases containing several adjectives, adjectives followed by attributive phrases, and the use of certain adjectives to mark the ‘superlative’ degree of comparison.

Phrases containing several adjectives

There is almost complete freedom in the ordering of a sequence of a noun qualified by more than one adjective; all of the elements involved are simply linked together by ya. Thus ‘my new gold watch’ may be expressed in several ways:

- (a) reló-k ya balitók ya bálo
 watch + my lnk gold lnk new
- (b) balitók ya bálo-n reló-k
- (c) bálo-n balitók ya reló-k
- (d) reló-k ya bálo-n balitók
- (e) bálo-n reló-k ya balitók
- (f) balitók ya reló-k ya bálo

The main difference between one sequence and another is simply one of importance – the items are arranged in a descending order of importance.

When it is desired to give equal importance to two features rather than to subordinate one to the other, the adjectives concerned may be conjoined with tan ‘and’, as in these examples:

- (a) say asó ya mantoglep tan matakknén
the dog lnk sleepy and old
‘The sleepy old dog – i.e. the dog which is both old and sleepy’.
- (b) say mantoglep ya matakknén ya asó
‘The sleepy old dog (as in (a))’
- (c) duára-n magána tan atatagéy ya marikít
two + lnk beautiful and tall lnk maiden ‘Two pretty and tall maidens’

Adjectives followed by attributive phrases

Adjectives may be followed by an attributive phrase (or referential phrase if a pronoun is to be used) to form the comment of an equational sentence, to signify a relationship between the topic and adjective holding true for the entity denoted by the nucleus of the referential or attributive phrase.

Examples:

Masamít nen Pedro so basí (sweet mkr (atr) Pedro mkr (topic) can-liquor). ‘Basí (cane liquor) is palatable to Pedro’.

Matabaño nen Láki so pisiño (bland mkr (atr) grandfather mkr (topic) vegetable). ‘Grandfather finds vegetables tasteless’.

Maasín ed siák so agamáño (salty mkr (ref) mkr (topic) salted-shrimp-sauce). ‘Agamáño is [rather] salty for me’.

‘Superlative’ adjectives

Expressions equivalent to those formed in English by the use of ‘very’ or ‘most’ in construction with an adjective may be formed in Pangasinan by means of intensifying affixes (discussed in the next section, below), or by means of a number of ‘Superlative’ adjectives linked to the other adjective concerned by ya. In English translation, these superlative adjectives

tives appear as adverbs, but in Pangasinan they are used in the same way as any other adjective, in the sense this term has been defined for Pangasinan above. The most commonly encountered of this group of adjectives are alabás 'excessively; more than sufficient', mapalálo 'especially', kagót 'very', tuá 'true, truly', túloy 'continuous'.

Examples:

alabás a maogés, maogés a alabás 'very evil';

mapalálon marúnoṅg 'very industrious';

báleg ya kagót 'very big';

masantiṅg a tuá 'very nice';

masiglát a túloy 'always prompt; very prompt'.

(Note that the translation 'very' could be replaced by 'most' or by the literal meaning of the superlative adjective (as given in the preceding paragraph) in each of these cases).

Affixes of intensity and diminution

The affixes which are applied to both basic and derived adjectives (i.e. those which are non-derivational in character) indicate either intensity or diminution. These affixes are listed and illustrated below.

Reduplication of part of word root is employed to indicate relative degrees of intensity. The amount of the root reduplicated varies from one word to another, and cannot be ascertained simply by taking the phonological structure of the word into account. However, there are two degrees of intensity, roughly corresponding to 'comparative' and 'superlative' in Indo-European languages, which may be expressed by reduplicating a smaller and larger segment respectively of the word root in the adjective stem. The minimal reduplication is accompanied by stress on the penultimate syllable of the word, and indicates the comparative or lesser degree of intensity; the reduplication of a larger segment of the same root, retaining the normal intrinsic stress, indicates the superlative or greater degree of intensity, as shown in the following pairs of examples: amputí 'beautiful', amput- púti 'more beautiful', amputíputí 'very beautiful'; andekét 'black', andekdéket 'blacker', andekét-dekét 'very black'; ambalaṅgá 'red', ambalbaláṅga 'redder', am-

balbalánga ‘very red’ (note only the stress is changed in this case); melág ‘small’, melmelág ‘smaller’, melámelág ‘very small’; báleg ‘big’, babáleg ‘bigger’, balbáleg ‘very big’. Where the first vowel in the word root has been deleted, reduplication will involve the derivational affix, as maplés ‘fast’ (root pelés) mapmaplés, maksíl ‘strong’ (root kasíl) makmaksíl.

aňgká- [= an- (derivational affix) + ka- (nominalizing affix)] also functions as an intensifying affix, as in aňgkabáleg ‘large’ (báleg ‘big’), aňgkalimpék ‘well rounded’ (limpék ‘round’), aňgkasantiňg ‘really nice’ (masantiňg ‘nice’), aňgkarúnoňg ‘really intelligent’ (marúnoňg intelligent, skilled)

-g- + CV- of root indicates diminution, as in dagdaisét ‘quite few’ (daisét ‘few’), maragdalós ‘quite clean’ (maralós ‘clean’ (e.g. free of weeds)), tugtuá ‘quite true’ (tuá ‘true’), maragdakép ‘quite nice’ (marakép ‘nice’).

-ító, -íta (from Spanish, with Spanish-derived adjectives only) diminutive, e.g. guapító (m.) ‘handsome’, guapíta (f.) ‘pretty’ (said e.g. of a small child) (guápo (m.) ‘handsome’, guápa (f.) ‘beautiful’).

manka- (distributive form mankaka-) intensifying affix, as in mankamaoňg ‘of greatest good’ – manka-maoňg ya gawa ‘good works’, mankaogés ‘most evil’, mankakaruták ‘very dirty – i.e. dirtied all over, with dirt widely distributed’, mankakalínis ‘very clean’.

sanka-...-an affixed to adjective root, or in some cases stem affixed with ma-, indicates intensity and exclusiveness, as in sankasantiňgán ‘nicest of all’ (masantiňg ‘nice’), mankaganaán ‘most beautiful’ (magána ‘beautiful’), sankapaňguloán ‘first born’ (pangúlo ‘first born child’), sankabondayán ‘fussiest’, sankakolián ‘most industrious’, sankabálegán ‘biggest’, sanka-masamítán ‘sweetest’ (masamít ‘sweet’), sankale-mekán ‘softest of all’.

Derivational affixes

The affixes which transform noun and verb stems are listed below.

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a- forms adjectives from certain word roots, e.g. atagéy 'tall', arawí 'far' from the roots tagéy and dawí respectively. The passive potential verbal affix a- (q.v.) also often has an 'adjectival' sense, but is not equivalent to the adjectival a- exemplified above.

-ádo, -áda an adjective formative in some words of Spanish origin, e.g. evaporáda 'evaporated', aregládo 'satisfactory, okay' (from arégla, areglár 'to arrange'), cuadrádo 'square', malasádo 'half cooked'.

aki- + (C)V- (also maki-, ki-, + (C)v-) with noun stems - 'full of', e.g. makiaaswék 'full of smoke' (aswék 'smoke'), makirir-iñgót 'full of mess' (diñgót 'mess').

an- adjective derivative, often with the implication of an inherent quality (in contrast with ma- q.v., although the two affixes are rarely applicable to the same stem) as in antakót 'timid' (cf. matakót 'afraid'; takót 'fear'), ambalañgá 'red', añgkelág 'small', andekét 'black', andukéy 'long', amputí 'white, fair', ambasá 'wet' (note that the /n/ assimilates to the point of articulation nearest to that of the following consonant).

-in- + CV-, with noun stems - 'imitating, acting like, pretending to be', e.g. binabakés 'acting like a monkey' (bakés 'monkey'), binabai 'acting like a girl' (bií 'female, girl'), binababóy 'acting like a pig', binabástos 'acting uncouthly' (bástos 'indecent; expression of disgust'), linalakí 'acting like a boy' (lakí 'male, boy').

kapan- (kapani-, with same meaning, may also be used with certain stems) with verb stems - 'newly' e.g. kapananá, kapanianák 'newly born' (aná 'offspring; be born'); kapanlutó 'newly cooked', kapangawá 'newly made', kapanpínta 'newly painted', kapantaném, kapani-taném 'newly planted' - abagót may kapantaném ya kala-mansík (was-uprooted mkr (topic) newly-planted lnkr kalamansi + my) 'my newly planted kalamansi tree was uprooted'.

ki- with nouns - 'full of' (=aki-, q.v.) e.g. kibabasá 'all wet' (basá 'wetness').

ma- with noun or verb stems, acts as adjective formative, often implying an acquired or non-intrinsic characteristic or quality, as in maábíg 'good', masamít 'sweet', mabaíñg 'shy' (cf. ambaíñg 'ashamed', masamít 'sweet' inhibited by respect'), matakót 'afraid' (cf. antakót 'timid'), maruksá 'cruel', magána

'beautiful, pretty', maganó 'shortly' (ganó 'proximate'), makdél 'thick (growth)' (kerél 'be full of people, objects etc.'). With nouns denoting objects as against qualities, ma- often has the connotation 'infested with', as in maa-géyet 'infested with mosquitos' (agéyet 'mosquito'), maasin '(excessively) salty' (asin 'salt'), marabók '(excessively) dusty (air) full of dust' (dabók 'dust'). Ma- is also used occasionally with basic adjectives, as in marakél 'many' (dakél 'many, much'), maágom 'very greedy' (ágom 'greedy'), again with something of an intensive-distributive connotation, as with the noun stems in the preceding set of examples.

magka- signifies approximation, especially with nouns of time (cf. magkaka- below), as in magkaogtó 'almost noon' - magkaogtó lay ágew 'the sun is almost at its zenith', magkalabi 'almost night'.

magkaka- signifies appearance to the senses, as in magkakaalák 'smells like liquor' (alák 'liquor'), magkakaágew 'smells like the sun - e.g. said of a child playing in the sun for a long time)', magkakasar-dinas 'smells like sardines', magkakaañgló 'seems like sour milk'.

maí + CV- with verb stems, signifies habituation, as in maililikét 'always happy' (likét 'be happy'), maíeermén 'sentimental' (ermén 'be sorrowful'), maíaaakis 'cry babyish' (akis 'cry'), maíeelék 'always laughing'.

makapa- with certain verb stems acts as an intensive adjectival affix implying a subjective state or quality as in makapalikét 'agreeable', makapasawá 'boring'.

maki- + CV- forms distributive-intensive adjectives from certain noun stems (=aki- q.v. above), as makiaaswék 'full of smoke'.

mala- forms adjectives of similarity or equivalence from noun stems, as malakawayán 'like bamboo' (kawayán 'bamboo'), malaiknól 'like an egg - i.e. about to ripen (e.g. a mango or other fruit)', malama-ní 'like peanuts', maladagát 'like an ocean', malailóg 'like a river'.

man- forms adjectives from certain verb stems, e.g. mantoglép 'sleepy' (toglép 'to drowse'), manlalaók 'mixed up, scrambled' (laók 'to blend'), manelék 'laughing' (elék 'to laugh').

mapa- an intensifying affix which indicates a quality imposed from an external source, in contrast with mapaN- (q.v. below), as in mapaáro ‘much loved’, mapagálañg ‘much respected’, mapatoló ‘much ordered about (i.e. obedient in response to frequent orders)’, mapaatagéy ‘exalted’.

mapaN- an intensifying affix indicating an intrinsic or inherent quality, as in mapaňgáro ‘loving’ (áro ‘to love’), mapaňgálañg (gálañg ‘respect, respectful’), mapanolók ‘helpful, obedient from choice’ (tolók ‘to obey’), mapaňgatagéy ‘very haughty’ (atagéy ‘high’), mapaňgombabá ‘not showy, humble’.

na- acts as an adjective formative with a few verb and also adjective stems, as naogíp ‘asleep’ (ogíp ‘to sleep’), naambágel ‘crazed’ (ambágel ‘crazy’). This affix is not the same as the non-past potential passive verbal affix na- (q.v.), although the latter may be used to form words with descriptive connotations.

nan- acts as an adjectival formative with some noun stems, indicating possession of the quality or object denoted by the stem concerned, as in nancocóa ‘containing cocoa’.

pa- + reduplicated root forms adjectives of proximity from certain verb stems, as with paanákanák ‘about to give birth’ (aná ‘bear a child’).

sanka- forms frequentative adjectives from verb stems, e.g. sankaebá ‘constantly carried’ – sankaebá si Juanito ‘Juanito’s always being carried’, sankasak-bát ‘always carrying on the shoulder’, samkaakwál ‘always on one’s lap’; the adjective formed by this affix may be followed by an attributive phrase denoting the performer of the action indicated by the verb stem, e.g. sankaebám si Juanito ‘you’re always carrying Juanito’.

sinan- with noun stems denotes completeness and similarity, e.g. sinampúso ‘heart-shaped-’ (púso ‘heart’).

Existential adjectives

The existential adjectives are walá ‘existing’, and anggapó ‘not existing’. They are often used to express a state of affairs which would be conveyed by the verb ‘have’ in English – e.g. Waláy íbam? (existing + mkr companion + your). ‘Do you have a companion?’; Anggapóy librók (not-existing + mkr book + my). ‘I don’t have a book’. These adjectives appear almost invariably as comments of equational sentences. Further examples follow.

Examples:

Waláy bisíta mi (existing + mkr (topic) visitor our). ‘We have visitors’.

Anták ya anggapó ra diá (known + by-me lnr not-existing they here). ‘I know that they’re not here’.

Walá lay sakéy bolán mi, atchí (existing already + mkr (topic) one month our, older-sister). ‘It’s been one month now [e.g. that we’ve been like this], atchí’.

Walá ni sínin nabuás? ‘Is there still [something] tomorrow?’

Anggapó lay ónla diá ed kamposáto nabuás na ngárem (not-existing already + mkr (topic) will-go here to cemetery tomorrow mkr (atr) afternoon). ‘No one will be going to the cemetery any more tomorrow afternoon’.

Combinations with locative demonstratives

The existential adjective root wa appears in the combinations wadiá, wadmán and wadtán, which are illustrated in the section devoted to locational demonstratives, above.

VERBS

Characteristics of verbs

Aspect

Verbs are characterized by their compatability with tense-aspect affixes. Each action or state is designated as actual or potential, real or unreal, complete or incomplete by means of these affixes. Tense is determined by means of formal contrast between a pair of affixes identical except for the dimension of completeness; these affixes can be described as ‘past’ and ‘non-past’ in their time connotations, although it is actually the aspectual element of completeness contrasting with its absence which determines this tense-like property. When that member of a set of affixes which is marked for incompleteness is followed by a reduplication of the initial consonant and vowel (and often the following consonant where this forms part of the initial syllable) of the verb stem, the reality of the action is also established; completed actions are automatically ‘real’ at

least hypothetically so. Thus the contrasting set of affixes on- (actual, incomplete), -inm- (actual, complete) may be used with appropriate verb stems to produce contrasts like the following: oninóm '(he) will drink' [actual, incomplete, unreal]; oniinóm '(he) is drinking' [actual, incomplete, real]; inminóm '(he) was drinking - he drank' [actual, complete, real]; onbatík 'he will run'; onbabatík 'he is running'; bínmatík 'he ran'.

Where no contrasting pair is found, the affix may be regarded as 'neutral' in tense from an English speaker's point of view; in the Pangasinan system as interpreted above, however, it will signify a completed (although not necessarily past) or incomplete state or action, as for example makasalíta 'able to speak' [potential, real, complete], makakaorán 'threatening rain' [potential, real, incomplete].

In addition to the aspectual elements mentioned above, which are characteristic of all verbal affixes, individual affixes or sets of affixes may also mark such aspectual features as mutuality, intensity, diminution, frequency and distribution.

Transitivity

Transitivity (the involvement of an object or goal of the action) is marked explicitly or implicitly by certain affixes (e.g. the active affixes mañgi- and maN- respectively; passive affixes are all explicitly transitive), while others are neutral in this regard (e.g. the active affixes on- and aka-).

Mode

There are four modes (or moods) marked by Pangasinan affixes - indicative (where no special presumptions are made about the intent or otherwise of the actor), involuntary, tentative, and imperative. Where the latter mode is marked, its presence is indicated by the absence of affixation (see the section on imperative sentences in Part III, *infra*). Sentences with verbs inflected for imperative mode may be paralleled by constructions using verbs with affixes marked for different kinds of modality.

Focus

Focus is the relationship holding between the verb and its subject. There are six categories of focus, one of which is marked in all verbal affixes – active (where (the phrase indicating) the initiator of the action (if any) is subject), passive (where the goal or object is subject), referential (where the location or locale of the action is subject), bene-factive (where the beneficiary is subject), agentive (where the action is performed by a third party, represented by the subject phrase, at the instigation of the actor, but not as a corollary of grammatical causation (see voice, below)), or instrumental (where that with which the action is performed is represented by the subject phrase). Further discussion, together with many examples, of the different kinds of focus is found in the relevant section of Part III.

Voice

Pangasinan verb stems are marked as causative by the affixation of the causative prefix pa- immediately preceding the word root, or as direct by the absence of pa-. The causative voice indicates that the actor has caused the action to be brought about, either by or on himself, or by means of the subject of the sentence. Examples of causative sentences are given and discussed in relation to the corresponding direct voice sentences in the section on focus in Part III, q.v. The direct voice indicates simply that the relationship between the verb and phrases standing in construction with it (subject, object, etc.) is not the result of causation (the element of causation in agent-focus sentences is logical, not grammatical).

Verbal Affixes

With the exception of some uses of on- and its completed action counterpart -inm-, all verbal affixes may be regarded as non-derivational, i.e. the stems to which they are applied are by definition verb stems. They are therefore included below in a single list. Those affixes followed by an asterisk enclosed in parentheses -(*) are further illustrated in use by sets of exercises in the appropriate section on focus in Part III (keys to the exercises are included in Appendix II).

The following special abbreviations are used to indicate the modal, aspectual and other features marked by the affixes:

WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

Mode:	Int [entive], Inv [oluntary], Ind [icative], Imp [erative] (if mode is not stated, the affix is to be regarded as indicative).
Transitivity:	Impl [icitly], Expl [icitly], Tr [ansitive], Neu[tral] (indicated for active affixes only).
Focus:	Act[ive], Pas[sive], Ref[erential], Ben[efactive], Ag[entive], Ins[trumental].
Aspect:	Mut[ual involvement], Intens[ive], Freq[uentative], Dist[ributive], Dim [inutive], Pot[ential – if not designated as potential aspect, affix is automatically actual], Real [– if not designated as real affix is automatically unreal in the absence of additional contrary affixation], Com[plete – if not characterized thus, affix is considered as incomplete aspect (Inc)]. Where an affix is a member of a pair, one complete and the other incomplete, the entry for one will contain a cross-reference to the other in square brackets following the citation of the affix being discussed – e.g. <u>on-</u> [Com: <u>-inm-</u>], <u>-inm-</u> Com [Inc: <u>on-</u>].
Voice:	Caus[ative – if not designated causative, affix is automatically in the direct voice in the absence of causative affixation to the stem of the verb concerned].
<u>Ø-</u>	Imp, Act, Neu. E.g. <u>alagár kayó</u> (wait you (pl)) ‘wait!’; <u>alagáy ka</u> (stand you) ‘stand up!’; <u>irónŋ ka</u> ‘sit down!’; <u>loóp kayó</u> (come) in!’; <u>ogíp ka la</u> (sleep you already) ‘go to sleep now’.
<u>Ø-</u>	Imp, Pas. E.g. <u>tepét mo irá diá no labáy da</u> (be-asked (Imp) by-you they here if liked by-them) ‘Ask them [to come] here if they would like to’; <u>táwag mo irá</u> (be-called by-you they) ‘call them!’; <u>pilím ...</u> ‘choose ...’; <u>alám ...</u> (be-obtained by-you) ‘get’; <u>pakán mo may ogáw</u> ‘feed the boy’; <u>neñgneñg mo</u> ‘look!’.

Reduplication of initial (C)V- of root, (or first syllable of polysyllabic roots) in presence of affix marked for Inc aspect: 'continuous' action, i.e. Real, Inc, e.g. mañgakán (maN- + CV- + kan 'eat') 'is/are eating'; manpaspasiár (man- + CVC- + pasiár 'go around') 'is/are going around'; manéebá (man- + V- + ebá 'carry') 'is/are carrying'; tatáwagen (CV- + táwag 'call' + -en) 'is/are being called'.

Reduplication of whole root in presence of affix marked for Inc aspect, esp. man-; Dist, uncontrolled activity, e.g. manbása '(will) read', manbásabása 'reading anything and everything'; manpasiár '(will) go around', manpasiárpasiár 'going around all over the place, with no special destination in mind, etc.'.

a- Pot, Real, Com [Inc: na-]; Pas; Ind; (*). E.g. akábat 'was able to be met' - Akábat ko may amígo yon makulí 'I was able to meet (lit. was able to be met by me) your industrious friend'; adeláp 'was flooded' (i.e. the possibility of flooding had become a reality) - Adeláp ya amín so pagéy mi 'Our rice was all flooded'.

A-...-an Pot, Real, Com [Inc: na-...-an], Ref; (*). E.g. Abayarán mi mamíso (was-paid-for by-us peso-apiece). 'We paid a peso apiece [for what we bought]'. Akábatán nen Flora ya nilóko day Bill (became-acquaint-ed-with by Flora ...). 'Flora knew that they had tricked Bill'.

ag- negative particle (not a verbal affix, although may appear as a clitic before an affixed verb stem - e.g. agnayári (ag + na- + yári 'complete' 'cannot').

aka- Real, Com [Inc: paka-]; Act; Neu; Inv; (*). Can often be translated by English 'happened to'. E.g. Waláy betáng dan agá akaonlá ed bánsal yo (existing + mkr (topic) share their + lnk not happened-to-go to wedding your). 'There is a share for those who didn't go to your wedding (i.e. for those whose failure to attend was not of their own volition)'. Akaoléy ki la (happened-to-be-incharge you already). 'You're the one to decide'. Akaneñgneñg iráy aróm a toó. 'They happened to see someone (i.e. they saw someone by chance)'.

aka-...-an Real, Com [Inc: paka-...-an]; Ref; Inv; (*). The location of the action is normally placed in an equational (and therefore emphatic) relationship with the rest of the sentence when this affix is used, whether or not the phrase denoting location is also the subject of the verbal sentence. E.g. Dimád abóñg so akaneñgneñgán ko ed sámay retráto (dimád abóñg

'there in the house' = subject). 'It was in the house that I saw (happened to see) the photograph'. Diád síloñg na lamisaán so akaanapán ko may tínggal (may tínggal '(the) ten centavos' = subject). 'It was under the table that I happened to find the ten-centavo piece'.

aki- Mut, Real, Com [Inc: mi-]; Act; Neu; (*). Used for activities in which two or more people participate on an equal basis (see also note on pi-, below). E.g. akimísa 'went to mass', ak-ilában 'fought (each other)'; akisayáw 'danced' - labáy ko komóy akisayáw ed sikató 'I would have liked to have danced with her'.

aki-...-an Mut, Real Com [Inc: mi-...-an]; Act; Neu. This affix seems to serve to throw additional emphasis on the action itself (as compared with aki-), but the actor remains the subject of the sentence. E.g. Nimán nen kabuasán akipirdonaán si Bill kinen Mondoñg. 'It was in the morning that Bill forgave Mondong'.

ama- Caus (aN- + pa- but functions as a unit); Real, Com [Inc: mama-]; Act; Impl Tr; Int. Indicates successful completion of action. E.g. Amataném ak na maís. 'I planted the corn (i.e. caused it to be planted)' (actor performed action himself). Amapataném ak na maís. 'I had the corn planted (i.e. caused its being caused to be planted)' (actor had someone else do the action). Amapatikiáb so Estádos Unídos na sakéy ya cuétis (tikiáb 'to fly', patikiáb 'to cause to fly, e.g. launch a rocket'). 'The United States has successfully launched a rocket'.

aN- Real, Com [Inc: maN-]; Act; Impl Tr; Ind; (*). (See entry for maN- for further notes). E.g. añgán 'ate' (kan 'to eat') - Añgán ak na kánen to. 'I ate his food'. añgalá 'got' (ala 'get'); analíw 'bought' (salíw 'buy'). -an Inc [Com: nan- ... -an + pi-]; Ref. With pi- affixed to verb stem, referent = other party or parties involved in the action apart from actor. E.g. piolopán '(will) be accompanied by'; pineñgneñgán '(will) be seen by'.

-an Inc [Com: -in- ... -an]; Ref; (*). The referent may be an event - Illaloán mi so isabí da (expected by-us mkr (subj) will-be-arrived by them). 'We are awaiting their arrival', an accessory to the action. Si Linda so piolopán ko (mkr Linda mkr (topic) will-be-mutually-gone-together-with by-me). 'I'll be going with Linda', an accessory which appears as an 'object' in English translation. Labáy kon pineñgneñgán nátan si Susi (wanted by-me + lnk will-mutually-see-(with) today mkr (subj) Susi). 'I want to see Susi today'. Location: Si Pedro tanemán toy pónti imáy jardín nen Juan (mkr Pedro will-be-planted-at by-him + mkr

(obj) banana mkr (subj) garden of Juan). ‘Pedro will plant bananas in Juan’s garden’. Often the location-referent is placed in an equational (comment) relationship to the rest of the sentence, as in Ámay abóñg so daitán nen Pedro ed áysiñg (the house mkr (topic) sewed-at by Pedro to clothes). ‘The house is where Pedro makes clothes’. With some stems, may also indicate manner: Deenán mo pay mañgán na sopas (deenán ‘will-be-quiet-in’). ‘Please eat your soup quietly’.

aN-...-an Real, Com [Inc: paN-...-an]; Ref; (*). The referent is the location of the action: Iner so aňganán nen Pedro (where mkr (topic) did-eat-at by Pedro). ‘Where did Pedro eat?’

angi- Real, Com [Inc: mangi-]; Act; Expl Tr; (*). E.g. Aňgibaňgát si Juan na ogáw. ‘John taught the boy’. aňgitúkdol ‘donated’, aňgitólor ‘took’.

angi-...-an Real, Com [Inc: pangi-...-an]; Ref. Referent-subject may be location: Say masitéra so aňgitanemán koy apáyas (aňgitanemán ‘did-plant-in’). ‘The flower pot was where I planted the papaya’. Or accessory: Tuká so aňgilutoán toy sirá (vinegar mkr (topic) did-cook-in by-him + mkr (obj) fish). ‘He cooked the fish in vinegar’.

-en Inc [Com: -in-]; Pas; (*). E.g. básaen ‘will be read’, paógipen ‘will be put to sleep’ (stress on syllable preceding -en is usually displaced, as in preceding example with paogíp ‘cause to sleep’ + -en), táwagen ‘will be called’. -en is also often used in sentences with imperative force. E.g. Táwagen moy Pedro (will-be-called by-you + mkr (subj) Pedro). ‘(You) call Pedro’. With addition of reduplication of the verb stem, it is also used to indicate Real aspect, to form sentences with the force of negative imperative force. E.g. Agmo tatáwagen si Pedro (not + by-you will-be-called mkr (subj) Pedro). ‘Don’t call Pedro’. (See also section on affixes associated with numerals, *infra*, and notes on *in-*, below).

i- Inc [Com: in-]; Pas; Int; (*). E.g. itaném ‘will be planted’, ilutó ‘will be cooked’, isúlat ‘will be written’. Like -en, i- may also be used in sentences with imperative force, e.g. itapéw mod kahón (will-be-put-atop [it] by-you + on box) ‘Put it on top of the box’, agyo la ibabagá si Pedro (not + by-you already being-invited mkr (subj) Pedro) ‘Don’t invite Pedro’; often used with verbs denoting motion and comparable with active affix on- to

mark event (with unexpressed subject), e.g. isabí da ([it] will-be-arrived by-them) 'their arrival, (when) they arrive' (cf. onsabí irá 'they will arrive'). (See also notes on in-, below).

i-...-án Inc [Com: in-...-án]; Ben; (*). E.g. itdán 'will be given for', itanemán 'will be planted for', ialaán 'will be got for', isaliwán 'will be bought for' - Isaliwán to tayóy písíng (will-be-bought-for by-him we + mkr (obj) vegetable). 'He'll buy vegetables for us'.

in- Real, Com [Inc: i-]; Pas; Int; (*). With many stems, the use of in- (or i-), on the one hand, or -in-, -en on the other is 'normal' in the sense that one affix is used more or less exclusively. However, there are also a number of stems where the affixes are used contrastively, and the selection of a particular affix is made in terms of this contrast rather than simply by convention - as e.g. inpaltóg 'was fired' cf. pinaltóg 'was shot', inbása 'was read (rather than, e.g. sung)' cf. binása 'was read (no assumptions made about alternatives)', insúlat 'was written (rather than e.g. read)' cf. sinúlat 'was written', inláko 'was sold (under some kind of compulsion - had to be sold)' cf. niláko 'was sold (freely)'.

-in- Real, Com [Inc: -en]; Pas; (*). E.g. binása 'was read', sinúlat 'was written', tináwag 'was called' - see notes on in- above for comments on contrast between -in-, -en (indicative) and in-, i- (Intensive).

in-...-an Real, Com [Inc: i-...-an]; Ben; (*). E.g. insaliwán 'was bought for', ingawaán 'was done for' inpesakán 'was laundered for'.

-in an intensive affix which seems to be associated only with the passive verb stem labáy as in labáyin yo kasí ... 'Do you (really) like ...'

in-...-an Real, Com [Inc: -an]; Ref; (*). Referent may be event - inilaloán mi so isabí da (was-expected by-us mkr (topic) will-be-arrived by-them) 'We were awaiting their (as yet unrealized) arrival', accessory - pinakábatán nen Linda sáray kakanáyonto (were-caused-to-know by Linda the (pl) relatives her) 'Linda informed her relatives', or location - tinanemán toy pónti imay hardín 'was-planted-in by-him + mkr (obj) banana mkr (subj) garden' 'He planted bananas in the garden'.

-inm- Real, Com [Inc: on-]; Act; Neu; (*). E.g. linma ‘went’, binmáleg ‘became big, grew up’, sinmabí ‘arrived’, pinmawíl ‘returned’ (See on- for further notes).

inpai- Caus; Real, Com [Inc: pai-]; Ag; Int. E.g. inpaibañgát ‘caused to instruct’ – Inpaibañgát koy Juan ed si Milo ya on-sayáw (was-caused-to-instruct by-me + mkr (subj) Juan mkr (ref) mkr (personal) Milo lnk will-dance). ‘I let Juan teach Milo how to dance’.

inpama- Caus (= inpaN- + pa-); Real, Com [Inc: pama-]; Ins; Int. Focuses attention on reason, circumstances, or responsibility for action, e.g. Sikatóy inpamatikiáb dad Apollo 9 (It + mkr (topic) was-caused-to-fly-with by-them + mkr (ref) Apollo 9).

‘That is why they launched Apollo 9’.

ipaN- see paN-

ipan- see pan-

ipañgi- see pañgi-

inpaN- Real, Com [Inc: paN-]; Ins. E.g. inpañgan ‘was-eaten-with’ (kan ‘eat’), impañgalá ‘was-gotten-with’ (alá ‘to get’). (Seen paN- for further notes).

inpaN- Real, Com [Inc: paN-]; Pas. Used in infinitive sense – See pan- for further notes.

inpan- Real, Com [Inc: pan-]; Ins; Int; (*). E.g. inpanpesák ‘was laundered (in such a manner)’, inpankiwál ‘was stirred with’ (See pan- for further notes).

inpan- Real, Com [Inc: pan-]; Pas; Int. Used in infinitive sense– See pan- below.

inpañgi- Real, Com [Inc: pañgi-]; Ins; (*). E.g. inpañgibañgát ‘was taught (In such a way)’, inpañgipawíl ‘means of returning’ (See pañgi- for further notes).

inpañgi- Real, Com [Inc: pañgi-]; Pas. Used in infinitive sense – See pan- below.

magsi- Dist, Inc [Com: nagsi-]; Act. E.g. Magsikánta kayó. ‘Each of you sing’. Magsisálíta irá. ‘They will each speak’.

magsi-...-an Mut, Dist, Inc [Com: nagsi-...-an]; Act. Indicates that action will or should be performed by each actor in turn'. E.g. Magsikantaán kayó. 'You should each sing in turn'. Magsitepetán irá. 'They will each ask in turn'.

maka- Pot, Real, Com; Act; (*). Affixed directly to verb stem (root, or to root to which pa- or pi- has been affixed), indicates simple ability or potential. E.g. makasalíta 'can make utterances', makasómpal 'can finish', makabóto 'can vote', makapiamés 'can bathe together' (amés 'bathe'); when followed by pan- (q.v.) implies qualification, competence etc., e.g. maka-pansalíta 'able to speak coherently' (salíta 'speak'), maka-panbóto 'qualified to vote'.

makaka- Pot, Real, Inc; Act; (*). Indicates tendency, e.g. Makakaorán ni met 'It's threatening rain', makakaáral 'likes to learn, is inclined to learn', makakatrabájo 'is inclined to work'.

makapan- see maka-

mama- Caus; Incl [Com: ama-]; Act; Impl Tr; Int. E.g. ma-mataném 'will plant (cause to be planted)', mamapasalíw 'will let buy (cause to be caused to be bought)'.

man- Inc [Com] man-]; Act; Impl Tr; Int; (*). Usually requires stress on following syllable, e.g. manámes (amés 'bathe') '(will) take a bath', manlóto (lotó 'cook') '(will) cook'. In contrast to maN- (q.v.) appears to indicate deliberate action, e.g. manpáltog 'hunt' as against mamaltóg 'shoot (spontaneously)', or action done to oneself as against the same action done to others, particularly with regard to clothing etc., e.g. mankáwes 'to dress oneself', mañgawés 'to dress another' (see maN- for further comparisons).

man- Dist/Freq, Inc [Com: man-]; Act; Ind. Applied to stems normally inflected with on-, implies plurality of action and, usually, actors, e.g. oninóm 'will drink', manínom '(many) will drink (frequently)', onabét 'will meet', manábet '(many) will meet', onasól 'will fetch water', manásol 'fetch water frequently' (note attraction of stress to following syllable, as in non-distributive use of man- described in preceding entry). See also section on affixes associated with numerals.

man- + CVC- Dim, Inc [Com: nan- + CVC-]; Act. E.g. mandokdokól 'lie down for a while' (dokól 'lie down') cf. ondorokól 'is lying down', mandorokól 'are/ will be severally lying down'.

maN- Inc [Com: aN-]; Act; Impl Tr; (*). E.g. mañgán ‘will eat’ (kan ‘eat’), mañgansión ‘will sing’ (kansión ‘sing’). Indicates spontaneous or outward directed action with certain stems, in contrast to man-, e.g. mamaltóg ‘will shoot’, manpáltog ‘will hunt’; mañgawít ‘will bring (someone) along’, manáwit ‘carry with one’; mañgalá ‘get’, manala ‘take’; mamítay ‘hang someone’, manbítay ‘hang oneself’. (See also entry for maN- in section on nominalizing affixes, above).

man-...-an Mut, Inc [Com: nan-...-an]; Act; Impl Tr. E.g. Man-aaroán kayó ‘Love each other’.

mañgi- Inc [Com: ãngi-]; Act; Expl Tr; (*). Frequently contrasts with on- and man- in the direction of definite transitivity of action, e.g. onpawíl ‘will return, i.e. come back’, mañgipawíl ‘will return something’; manbáñgát ‘will teach’ - Manbáñgát si Juan diád Bayambañg. ‘Juan will teach in Bayambang’; man-gibañgát ‘will teach (someone)’ - mangibañgát si Juan na ogáw ‘John will teach the boy’; mansúlat ‘will write’, mañgisúlat ‘will write something’; manpelág ‘drop (e.g. a letter into a postbox)’, mañgipelág ‘throw down’.

mi- Mut, Inc [Com: aki-]; Act; (*). Implies e-quality of participants (cf. pi-). E.g. Misayáw ad ed sikató. ‘I’ll dance with her’. Labáy to mikábat ed sáray amimiga nen Susan nabuás (liked by-him will-mutually-meet mkr (ref) the (pl) friends of Susan tomorrow). ‘He’d like to meet with Susan’s friends tomorrow’, mimísa ‘go to mass’, mitindáan ‘go to market’.

mi-...-an Mut, Inc [Com: aki-...-an]; Act; (*). Similar in force to mi-, but places additional emphasis on action. E.g. Labay to misulatán ed siká (liked by-him will-mutually-write with you). ‘He’d like to exchange letters with you’.

na- Pot, Real, Inc [Com: a-]; Pas; (*). Implies that action will definitely take place, i.e. that the potentiality will be realized; e.g. natrabájo ‘will be able to be accomplished (of work)’ - Daké! ni natrabájo tayó ‘We’ll get a lot done yet’; napasabí ‘would be caused to arrive’ - Illaloán mo napasabím irá (will-be-expected by-you would-be-caused-to-arrive + by-you they). ‘You’ll be awaiting their arrival’.

Na- Inc [Com: na- + CC or (C) + unstressed Vowel]; Pas; Inv; (*). Vowel of following syllable is stressed when not preceded and followed by a consonant, e.g. naáwít (root = awít) ‘will happen to be obtained or taken’, naáwat (root = awát) ‘will happen to be received’, nabuál (root = buál) ‘will happen to

be uprooted', napisít 'will happen to get broken', napesél 'will happen to be satisfied with food', nakéna (kéna) 'will happen to be shot'.

na- Com [Inc: na- (preceding entry)]; Pas; Inv; (*). When following vowel is bounded by consonants, it is deleted, as in the following examples: naksít (root = pisít) 'broken, shattered', naksél (pesél) '(was) satisfied with food', nákna (kéna) 'shot'; other stems are unaltered, e.g. naawít (awít) 'happened to be taken or obtained', naawát (awát) 'received', nabuál (buál) 'happened to be uprooted'.

na-...-an Pot, Real, Inc [Com: a-...-an]; Ref; (*). Referent is usually accessory to action, e.g. nakargaán 'will be filled with (i.e. will be able to be filled with)'. Nakargaán na buér itáy botílya (will-be-able-to-be-fillead-with mkr (obj) sand mkr (subj) bottle). 'The bottle will be filled with sand'; naanúsán 'will (be able to) be put up with' - Naanúsán mi irátan (will-be-able-to-be-put-up-with by-us those) 'We'll be able to put up with that (lit. those will be able to put up with by us)', Nabayaran mi mamiso 'Will pay one peso for each'.

na-...-an Inc [Com: na-...-an with vowel deletion]; Ret; Inv; (*). E.g. nareñgelán (deñgél 'hear') 'will be heard about' naabután (ábot 'reach') 'will be reached or caught up with'.

na-...-an Com [Inc: na-...-an]; Re; Inv. First vowel in circumfixed stem is deleted, e.g. nañgelañ (deñgél) 'heard about', naksawán (kesáw) 'tired, fatigued', nakbetán (kebet) 'withered, dried up', nábotan (abot) 'reached'.

nagsi- Dist, Real, Com [Inc: magsi-]; Act; (*). E.g. Nagsikánta kamí. 'We each sang'.

nai- Real, Com; Pas. Actor has responsibility for action, as in e.g. Naibalítak nen linma itayó dimán (let-be-known+ by-me when did-go we there). 'I'm the one who was supposed to give out the news (about) when we went there'.

naka-...-an Pot, Real, Com; Re. Subject denotes source of state, e.g. nakaliiñgán 'awakened' - Nakaliiñgán nen Pedro so toól na asó (was-awakened-through mkr (atr) Pedro mkr (subj) bark of dog). 'Pedro was awakened by the dog's bark - the dog's bark woke Pedro'; Nakatíponán 'able to be earned' - Nakatíponán to so panláko toy kánen (able-to-be-earned by-her mkr (subj) by-means-of-selling by-her+mkr (obj) cake. 'She

earns by selling cakes'; nakaneñgneñgán 'able to see at', Nakaneñgneñgán na maóñg ya líbro so librariá. '(One) can see good books at (because of) the library'.

nan- Real, Com [Inc: man-]; Act; Impl Tr; Int; (*). E.g. nanamés 'bathed', nanagtó 'carried on the head', nangawá 'made' - see also nan-, adjective derivational affixes, and nan-, numeral affixes.

nan-...-an Mut, Real, Com [Inc: man-...-an]; Act; Impl Tr. E.g. nanneñgneñgán 'saw one another' - Abayág agkamí nan-neñgneñgán (long not-we did-mutually-see). 'It's a long time since we saw each other'.

nan-...-an Real, Com [Inc: -an + pi-]; Ref. With pi- affixed to verb stem, acts as a referential affix (referent = party other than actor engaged in action). E.g. nanpigalawán 'was played with' - Si Juanita so nanpigalawán to ed Manila (mkr (pers) Juanita mkr (topic) was-played-with by-her in Manila). 'Juanita was the one she played with in Manila'.

nan-...-an Real, Com [Inc: pan-...-an]; Ref; Int; (*). Referent is almost invariably location, e.g. nanaralán 'was learned at' - Inér so nanaralán mo ya manlúto (where mkr (topic) was-learned-at by-you lnr will (=to) cook). 'Where did you learn to cook?', nangáwaán 'was made at'.

ni- Real, Com; Pas; Impl Tr; Int. Implies absence of outside pressures (cf. i-, in-) and also connotes purposiveness (as against simple intent); e.g. níla 'was gone to (for some reason)' - Siopáy nílam (who + mkr (topic) was-gone-to + by-you) 'who did you go to', Nílak si kompárek (was-gone-to + by-me mkr (subj) compadre) 'I went to my compadre'; nisúlat 'written about'; nílako 'might/should/could sell' - Ándi bálí ta walá ni pagéy ya nílako yo 'It doesn't matter because there is still rice that you could sell'; ninbañ-gat 'was taught purposively' - Nibañgát kamín maóñg dimád Peace Corps 'We were (really) taught well in the Peace Corps'; ninónot 'was thought (for some reason)' - Ninónot mi ya waláy betáñg da (was-thought by-us lnr existing + mkr (topic) share their) 'We had some reason to think that there would be a share for them'.

ni-...-an Real, Com; Ben; Int; (*). E.g. nidaitán 'be sewn for', nibasaán 'be read for' - Nibasaán mo ak na istória. 'Could you read me a story?'.

on- Inc [Com: -inm-]; Act; Neu; Ind; (*). E.g. oninóm '(will) drink', onlá '(will) go', onsabí '(will) arrive'; with noun and adjective stems may be used as a derivative affix signifying 'to become', - e.g. onbúnga '(will begin to) bear fruit' (búnga 'fruit'), onlamót '(will begin to) grow roots' (lamót 'root'), onbáleg '(will) become big, grow up' (báleg 'big'). May be used with imperative force with stems with which it is normally associated in active indicative constructions; e.g. oniróñg 'sit', onlá 'go/come' - onlá kayó (will-go-you (pl) 'go!' (or 'come')). With reduplication of initial (C)V- of verb stem, may indicate diminutive or accretive aspect (cf. man- + CVC-), as onbebetél so lábi 'the night is getting cold(er)', onpepetáñg 'getting hot(ter)', onlilikéy 'getting short(er) (e.g. the day)'.

pa- (*). Voice affix (causative), occurring immediately before root, and compatible with most verbal affixes, e.g. pinaogíp (-in- + pa- + ogíp 'was caused to sleep', mañgipabañgát (mañgi- + pa- + bañgát) 'will cause to teach'; pabáñgaten 'will be caused to be taught', manpatolóñg 'will make (someone) assist'. May also occur without further affixation with some verb-stems, the resultant form having the same meaning as one affixed with in-, e.g. papetpét 'caused to be placed in the palm of the hand' - Alám yay piso ya papetpét ko ed anak yo 'Take the peso that I (caused to be) enfolded in your child's palm'. (See also ama-, inpama-, inpai-, mama-, pai-, pama- elsewhere in this list, and makapa-, mapa- in the list of adjective derivative affixes above).

pagsi-...-an Mut, Dist, Inc [Com: nagsi-...-an]; Act. =magsi-...-an, q.v.

pai- Caus; Inc [Com: inpai-]; Ag; Int. E.g. Paisalíta toy Fe ed si Mila (will-be-caused-to-speak by-him + mkr (subj) Fe mkr (ref) mkr (pers) Mila). 'He'll let Fe speak to Mila'.

paka- Inc [Com: aka-]; Act; Neu; Inv. E.g. pakaliñg '(will) happen to wake up'. (cf. paka- in list of nominalizing affixes, above).

paka-...-an Inc [Com: aka-...-an]; Ref; Inv; (*). Referent may be state; e.g. Say apiléy ya salí to so agtó pakaalageyán (The was-sprained lnk foot his mkr (topic) not + by-him could-happen-to-be-walked). 'He cannot walk because he sprained his foot'; source e.g. Say rádio so pakapineñgneñgán na balítan ágewágew (the radio mkr (topic) will-happen-to-be-mutually-seen mkr (obj) news + lnk daily). 'The daily news is made known

through the radio'; or location, e.g. Inér so pakaneñgneñgán ko ed sikayo (where mkr (topic) will-happen-to-be-seen by-me mkr (ref) you). 'Where would I be able to see you?'

pama- Caus (=paN- + pa-); Inc [C: inpama-]; Ins; Int. E.g. pamatikiáb 'will be caused to fly (i.e. will be launched)' (Referent=reason, circumstances etc.).

paN- (also ipan-) Inc [Com: inpaN-]; Ins (parallels active affix maN-). 'Instrument' may range from a physical means of accomplishing something, e.g. Banuít so pañgalá nen Pedro na sirá (fishhook mkr (topic) will-be-obtained-with by Pedro mkr (obj) fish). 'Pedro will get the fish with a hook'; a supplementary food helping one eat a main dish, e.g. Ipañgán koy púto ed dinalaán (will-be-eaten-with by-me + mkr (subj) puto mkr (ref) dinalaán). 'I'll eat dinalaan with puto', to an animate agent, e.g. Inpañgaláb toy bakés ed nióg. 'He used the monkey to climb the tree'.

paN- Inc [Com: inpaN-]; Pas - in infinitive sense. See pan- (passive infinitive) for notes and examples.

pan- (also ipan-) Inc [Com: inpan-]; Inc; Int; (*). 'Instrument' varies as noted above in regard to paN-; e.g. Ipansirá toy bañgos ed pisiñg (will-be-eat-en-with by-him + mkr (subj) milk-fish mkr (ref) vegetables). 'He'll use the milk fish for eating with vegetables'; Antóy pantaném nen Pedro na pónti (What will-be-planted-with by Pedro mkr (obj) banana). 'What will Pedro plant the banana with'. Instrumental pan- is also often used in an 'infinitive' sense (somewhat differently from passive pan- q.v. below); e.g. Maóñg a panbása may siléw (good lnk will-read-with mkr (subj) light). 'The light is good to read by'; similarly pandaít 'to sew with', pansúlat 'to write with', pantaném 'to plant with'.

pan- Inc [Com: inpan-]; Pas; Int. Used to produce 'infinitive' constructions, e.g. pansayáw '(how) to dance' - Manpatolóñg ak ed si Juan so pansayáw nen Milo. 'I'll let Juan help Milo to dance'; or to denote the imminent occurrence of an event, e.g. Kapigáy pantaném nen Pedro na pónti. 'When will Pedro plant (when is he going to plant) the banana?'; panbása '(going) to read' cf. similar uses of paN- - pañgán '(going) to eat', pañgansión '(going) to sing'. Also in an infinitive sense (but without significance as far as focus is concerned). pan- may occur in combination with other affixes, as, e.g. makapanboto 'able to

vote' (see makapan-, above; cf. also similar use of pangi- in, e.g. pakapañgiobolán (paka-...-an + pañgi- + obol) 'Where to sharpen (something)').

paN-...-an Inc [Com: aN-...-an]; Ref; (*). Referent = source or location, e.g. pañganán (kan 'eat') 'will-be-eaten-at' - Iner so pañganán nen Pedro (where mkr (topic) will-be-eaten-at by Pedro) 'where is Pedro going to eat', pañgalaán (ala 'get') 'will be obtained at', panaliwán (salíw 'buy') 'will be bought at'.

pan-...-an Inc [Com: nan-...-an]; Ref; Int; (*). Referent usually location, sometimes in sense of 'source' - e.g. pansáliwán 'will be bought at, i.e. source of supply'; also e.g. panánapán 'will be source or place of earning a living, panbásaán 'will be read at', pansulatán 'will be written at', panlákoán 'will be sold at'. Syllable following pan- is normally stressed (cf. man-).

pan-...-en Inc [Com: pinan-]; Ag. The action is performed by the subject under the influence of but not directly for the person denoted by the attributive phrase, as, e.g. pansíraen (sirá 'eat meat or fish') 'will be let eat' - Pansíraen ko la ray lechón (will-be-let-eat by-me already they + mkr (obj) lechón). 'I'll let them eat lechon (e.g. instead of giving them gifts)'; panpóteren (potér 'cut') 'make cut' - Panpóteren to tayo ni na kiéw da 'We will be made by him to cut their wood'. Note that stress is normally on syllable following pan-.

pañgi- (also ipañgi-) Inc [Com: inpañgi-]; Ins; Expl Tr; Int; (*). Probably the least frequently encountered instrumental affix (although in 'infinitive' sense (see entry below) is more common). E.g. pañgitilák 'will-be-left-through' - Pañgitilák ko si Juan na belás 'I'll have Juan leave the rice'.

pañgi- Inc [Com: pañgi-]; Pas; Expl Tr; Int; (*). Used in 'infinitive' sense, or to denote imminent action, in which case the affix can often be interpreted as equivalent to English 'going to', especially in reference to time phrases which may form the subject of the sentences concerned. E.g. Naáni so pañgilotó mi na adōbon áwiten mi ed picnic (later-on mkr (topic) going-to-be-cooked by-us mkr (obj) adobo + lnk will-be-brought by-us to picnic). 'Presently we'll cook the adobo which we'll bring to the picnic/later on we're going to cook the adobo ...'. See also entry for pan- (passive infinitive).

pañgi-...-an Inc [Com: añgi-...-an]; Ref; (*). Referent may be location, direction, or accessory. E.g. pañgibatikán (batík 'run') 'will be rushed to' - Diád ospital so pañgibatikán da may ogáw

(there + at hospital mkr (topic) will-be-rushed-to by-them mkr (subj) child). 'They'll rush the child to the hospital' (may ogáw is accessory/subject); pangisino-pán 'will-be-kept-in' - Dimad kahón so pangisínopán to na sirá. 'He'll keep the fish in a box' (there-in box mkr (topic) will-be-kept-in by-him mkr (obj) fish) (dimad kahón is location/subject, na sirá object).

pi- Aspectual affix, indicating mutuality, sometimes with connotation of superior/inferior relationship between parties involved. This affix occurs immediately before verb stem, and is compatible with several other affixes (but not those already indicating mutuality). E.g. makapitoñgtóñg 'can talk together' - Labáy di tátay ko so makapitoñgtóñg kindí Mama Lucio. 'My father would like to be able to talk with mama Lucio'; makapiamés 'can bathe together' - Makapiamés tayo dímán. 'We can all bathe together there'; piolopán 'will be accompanied', nanpigalawán 'was played with'. See also pi- in section on nomi-nalizing affixes.

pinan- Real, Com [Inc: pan-...-en]; Ag. The agent/subject performs action under influence of person denoted in attributive phrase, but not necessarily directly for the latter's benefit - e.g. Pinanpatáy ko si Pedro na manók (will-be-let-kill by-me mkr (subj) mkr (obj) chicken) 'I'll get Pedro to kill the chicken'.

Unaffixed passive verb stems

Apart from imperative forms marked by zero affixation (see list of verbal affixes above), there are four commonly encountered verb stems which may function without affixes. These are the verbs antá (also amtá) 'known', áñgan 'thought', labáy (also gabáy) 'liked, wanted, and gústó 'liked, wanted' (the latter is a 'borrowing' from Spanish). All are marked for direct voice, actual, real, and complete aspect, passive focus, and indicative mode.

Examples:

Agko antá (not + by-me known). 'I don't know'.

Amták so onlañgáy (known + by-me mkr (subj) will-swim). 'I know (how) to swim'.

Amtá nen Pedro ya wadiá ka. 'Pedro knows that you're here' (or 'knew you were here').

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Áňgan ko malikelikét si Nilo ta lakí so inmonán ahák to (thought by-me intensely-happy mkr Nilo because male mkr (topic) first + lñk child his). ‘I think Nilo must be very happy that his first child is a boy’.

Dinmalós kayó áňgan ko (did-harvest you thought by-me) ‘I think you harvested’ (i.e. ‘you harvested’ (i.e. ‘you harvested, didn’t you?’).

Agda gústo so onsayáw irámay marikít (not + by-them liked mkr (topic) to-dance mkr (subj, pl) maiden). ‘The girls don’t want to dance’.

Antóy gústom? ‘What would you like?’

Labáy ko mikábat kinen Miguel. ‘I’d like to meet Miguel’.

Agtó gabáy nen Flora ya baňgatán nen Nilo si Bill ya man-bólaňg (not + by-her wanted mkr (atr) Flora lñk will-be-taught mkr (atr) Nilo mkr (subj) Bill lñk will-go-cockfighting). ‘Flora didn’t want Nilo to introduce Bill to cockfighting’.

Unaffixed verb stems denoting activity itself

In constructions with adjectives, verb stems may sometimes appear unaffixed as the nucleus of a topic phrase, with the adjective constituting the comment phrase of the equational sentence concerned. In such cases the actor is represented by an attributive phrase or pronoun.

Examples:

Masamít so toňgtóňg da (sweet mkr (topic) con-versed by-them). ‘Their conversation is engrossing’.

Makapasawá so salíta nen Pedro (boring mkr (topic) spoken by Pedro). ‘Pedro’s speech (i.e. what he is saying) is boring’.

Marúnoňg so gawá na ogáw (skilled mkr (topic) worked by child). ‘The child’s work (i.e. what he is doing) is skillful’.

Phonological changes in verb and adjective roots

Stress shifts

It has been noted in relation to certain affixes that the stress on the stems to which they are affixed may be shifted in their presence - thus, for example, -en normally shifts an immediately preceding strong stress back one syllable, so, e.g. amés + -en becomes amésen, lotó + -en appears as lótoen, etc., while man- normally requires strong stress on the immediately following syllable, e.g. man- + amés = manámes, man- + lotó = manlóto, and -an normally attracts strong stress to itself, as in e.g. neñgnéñg + -an = neñg- neñgán, anák + nan-...-an + nananakán etc.

Vowel deletion

In addition to the phenomenon of stress shift, however, there is another change undergone by some verb stems in certain environments. This consists of the loss of the first or last vowel in the root - usually an unstressed vowel in a root with the phonological composition CVCV(C), (which becomes CCV(C)), or (C)VCVC (which becomes (C)VCC [+ suffix with initial V]). In such circumstances, a further change sometimes takes place when the deletion of the vowel leaves a sequence /ps/ - /p/ is likely to be replaced by /k/, giving a new sequence /ks/. When the consonant sequence after vowel deletion is /Cr/, /r/ is regularly replaced by /d/, giving a new sequence /Cd/. Vowel deletion takes place regularly with stems affixed by the involuntary mode affix na- (Actual, Real, Complete; Passive - not na- (Potential, Incomplete)) where the first vowel in stems with the shape CVCV(C) is deleted, and with na-...-an (Involuntary) where even root initial vowels may disappear and sporadically with other affixes. Examples follow.

na- + pesél = naksél 'satisfied with food'

na + pisít = naksít 'shattered'

na- ... -an + ábot = nábotan 'caught up with, reached'

na- ... -an + deñgél = nañgelán 'heard about'

ma- + bilí = mablí 'expensive'

ma- + kerél = makdél 'thick (growth)'

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ka- ... -an + báleg = kabalgán 'largest'

paka- + almó = pakálmo 'might find'

in-... -an + iter = initdán 'given to'

a- + genáp = agnáp 'real'

pa- + letáw = paltáw 'cook by floating'

pa- + lesá = palsá 'create'

NUMERALS

Basic Numerals

Two distinct sets of numerals are used by Pangasinan speakers, one derived from Spanish and the other indigenous to the Pangasinan language (i.e. of Malayo-Polynesian origin). While the Spanish-derived numerals are commonly used in situations arising from the assimilation of Western practices (e.g. telling the time in hours), and the 'indigenous' numerals are employed in situations less closely associated with Hispanic or Western innovations, the two sets are by no means mutually exclusive – in quoting prices, for example, numerals from either or both sets may be used.

Spanish-derived numerals

Cardinal numerals

The basic set of Spanish-derived cardinal numerals is as follows (orthographic e in these words is phonemically /E/):

<u>úno, úna</u>	'one'	<u>desisaís</u>	'sixteen'
<u>dos</u>	'two'	<u>desisiéte</u>	'seventeen'
<u>tres</u>	'three'	<u>desiócho</u>	'eighteen'
<u>kuátro</u>	'four'	<u>desinuéve</u>	'nineteen'
<u>siŋko</u>	'five'	<u>baínte</u>	'twenty'
<u>saís, seis</u>	'six'	<u>trénta</u>	'thirty'
<u>siéte</u>	'seven'	<u>kuarénta</u>	'forty'
<u>ócho</u>	'eight'	<u>siŋkuénta</u>	'fifty'
<u>nuéve</u>	'nine'	<u>saisénta,</u>	'sixty'
		<u>seisénta</u>	
<u>diés</u>	'ten'	<u>seténta</u>	'seventy'

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<u>ónse</u>	'eleven'	<u>ochénta</u>	'eighty'
<u>dóse</u>	'twelve'	<u>novénta</u>	'ninety'
<u>trése</u>	'thirteen'	<u>ciénto</u>	'hundred'
<u>katórse</u>	'fourteen'	<u>mil</u>	'thousand'
<u>kínse</u>	'fifteen'	<u>milión</u>	'million'

Numerals from 1 to 9 follow baínte 'twenty' without any linker; the numerals representing the decades 30-90 incl. are separated from a following unit numeral by y (Spanish 'and') - e.g. baínte síngko 'twenty -five', tréntay ócho 'thirty eight'. Numerals for hundreds from 200-900 are formed by preceding ciéntos 'hundreds' by the appropriate ordinal numeral, e.g. dos ciéntos /dosyÉntos/ 'two hundred', nueve ciéntos 'nine hundred', except for 500, which retains the standard Spanish form quinientos /kinyÉntos/.

Spanish-derived numerals are commonly used in telling the time (see note accompanying example below), giving telephone numbers, street addresses, and in quoting prices. Pangasinan numerals are also often used in the latter capacity.

Spanish-derived ordinal numerals

The Spanish-derived ordinal numerals in common use are priméro or oná (the latter affixed with -an, on-(non-past) or -inm-(past)) 'first', segúndo 'second', tercéro 'third', cuárto 'fourth', quínto /kínto/ 'fifth', séxto /sésto/ 'sixth', séptimo 'seventh'.

Spanish-derived ordinal numerals are normally used in regard to congressional districts and similar geographical or political divisions; in the case of the numerals for 'first (in order)', Spanish-derived forms have completely replaced those derived from indigenous sources.

Examples:

Pigá ya ey? Tréntay síngko labat. 'How much is this?' 'Thirty five [centavos] only.'

Alás dos ed ñgárem so isabí yo diá (at two in the afternoon mkr (topic) will-be-arrived by-you here). 'You'll get here at two in the afternoon.' (Numerals denoting time of the clock are preceded by the clitic alás (in the case of úna 'one' - alá), and are

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not normally followed by any other numeral; the Spanish phrase y média denotes 'half past', e.g. alás dós y média 'half past two' - more precise distinctions are not normally made.)

míl nuéve ciéntos saiséntay nuéve '1969'

dos dos siéte nuéve '(Telephone number) 2279'

Pangasinan numerals

The forms comprising the indigenous series of numerals are derived from the following roots:

<u>sakéy</u> , <u>isá</u>	'one'	<u>waló</u>	'eight'
<u>duá</u>	'two'	<u>siám</u>	'nine'
<u>taló</u>	'three'	<u>pólo</u>	'decade'
<u>apát</u>	'four'	<u>lasós</u>	'hundred'
<u>limá</u>	'five'	<u>libó</u>	'thousand'
<u>aném</u>	'six'	<u>Pigá</u>	'how many?'
<u>pitó</u>	'seven'	<u>labín</u>	'-teen'

Ordinal numerals

The simple ordinal numerals from 1-9 consist simply of the forms listed above. The formation of the remaining numerals is illustrated below.

<u>sampló</u> (<u>isá</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>pólo</u>)	'ten'
<u>labinsakéy</u>	'eleven'
<u>labindué</u>	'twelve'
<u>labintaló</u>	'thirteen' ...
<u>labinsiám</u>	'nineteen'
<u>duámplo</u> (<u>dua</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>pólo</u>)	'twenty'
<u>duámplo tan</u>	'twenty one'
<u>sakéy</u>	
<u>talómplo</u>	'thirty'
<u>apatámplo</u> (<u>apát</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>pólo</u>)	'forty'
<u>limámplo</u>	'fifty'
<u>anemámplo</u>	'sixty'
<u>pitómplo</u>	'seventy'
<u>walómplo</u>	'eighty'
<u>siamámplo</u>	'ninety'

<u>sanlasós</u> (<u>isá</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>lasós</u>)	'one hundred'
<u>sanlasós tan</u>	'one hundred and one'
<u>sakéy</u>	
<u>sanlasós tan</u>	'172'
<u>pitómplo tan duá</u>	
<u>duánlasós</u> (<u>duá</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>lasós</u>)	'two hundred'
<u>talónlasós</u> (<u>taló</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>lasós</u>)	'three hundred'
<u>apatalasós</u> (<u>apat</u> + <u>a</u> + <u>lasós</u>)	'four hundred'
<u>sanlibó</u> (<u>isá</u> + - <u>n</u> + <u>libó</u>)	'one thousand'
<u>samplón libó</u>	'ten thousand'
<u>sanlasós a libó</u>	'one hundred thousand'
<u>sakéy millón</u>	'one million' (note combination of indigenous and Spanish elements here)

Use of simple ordinal numerals

Indigenous numerals may be used as nouns when they are not combined with the various numeral affixes described in the next section. In such cases, however, the numerals almost always refer to a unit (e.g. price), rather than to individual items (e.g. so many objects). When used adjectivally (i.e. in reference to an explicitly stated entity), the phrase denoting the entity referred to is preceded by the numeral itself with or without the linker a following in the case of sakéy 'one' and apát 'four', or the numeral plus -y in the case of duá 'two', taló 'three' and limá 'five' as well as pigá 'how many?'. With numerals from six to ten and also the individuated interrogative pigára 'how many items'), the linker -n is used to link the numeral, which has been suffixed with the individuating affix -ira (see below), to the following phrase. Where individuality is strongly marked, simple ordinal numerals from two to ten are usually replaced by the corresponding individuated forms.

Examples:

Ibagá yo lay limá (will-be-asked by-you already mkr (subj) five).
'Ask five centavos or pesos (when bargaining for something).'

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Pigáy simba yo lan mantatrabájo diá - Wala lay duáy símba mi (how many weeks you already + lmk working here - existing already mkr (topic) two mkr (atr) week our). 'How many weeks have you been working here now?' - 'We've been here two weeks already.'

Walá lay anemíran bolán mi. 'We've been in this state for six months.'

sakéy ya toó 'one man', duáran toó 'two men'

apát bolán 'four months'

Complex numerals

Basic numerals may be combined with a number of numeral affixes to form noun, verb, or adjective stems having numeral force. Some of the more important sets are illustrated below, followed by an alphabetical listing of the affixes associated with numerals. It should be noted that in some semantic sets the affixes vary with certain numerals, that the forms involving the numeral 'one' are often highly irregular, and that in certain sets the numeral roots undergo vowel deletion and other morpho-phonemic changes.

Individuated numerals

duára 'two (individual items)'

talóra 'three (indiv.)'

apaterá 'four (indiv.)'

limára 'five (indiv.)'

anemirá 'six (indiv.)'

pitóra 'seven (indiv.)'

walóra 'eight (indiv.)'

siamirá 'nine (indiv.)'

samplóra 'ten (indiv.)'

pigára 'how many (individual items)?'

Distributive numerals

sansakéy 'one each'

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sanderuá 'two each'

santatló 'three each'

sanépat 'four each'

sanlilíma 'five each'

sanánem 'six each'

sampipító 'seven each'

sanwawálo 'eight each'

sansísiam, tigsiasíam 'nine each'

sansamplóra, tóŋggal samplóra 'ten each'

sanlalabinsakéy, tóŋggal labinsakéy 'eleven each'

santalómplo, tóŋggal talómplo 'thirty each'

sampipíga 'how much each? how many each?'

Frequentative numerals -- cardinal

maminsán 'once'

mamiduá 'twice'

mamitló 'thrice'

mamípat 'four times'

maminlimá 'five times'

mamínem 'six times'

maminpitó 'seven times'

maminwaló 'eight times'

maminsíam 'nine times'

maminsámplo 'ten times'

maminlabinsakéy 'eleven times'

mamínpiga 'how many times?'

(also aminsán, amiduá etc. -- see amin-, mamin- in list below)

Frequentative numerals -- ordinal

kasiá 'the first time'

WORDS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

pídua 'the second time'

pítlo 'the third time'

pípat 'the fourth time'

pínlimá 'the fifth time'

pínem 'the sixth time'

pinpitó 'the seventh time'

pinwaló 'the eighth time'

pinsiám 'the ninth time'

pinpólo 'the tenth time'

pínlabinsakéy 'the eleventh time'

kapigá 'which time?'

Numerals of limitation

saksakéy 'one only'

duágduára 'two only'

taltalóra 'three only'

apátpatíra 'four only'

litlimára 'five only'

anémnemíra 'six only'

pítpitóra 'seven only'

wálwalóra 'eight only'

siasiamíra 'nine only'

satsamplóra 'ten only'

latlabinsakéy, lablabinsakéy 'eleven only'

Numeral of group distribution

sakéy sakéy, sansasakéy 'one by one'

(Remaining numerals in this series are identical in form with the distributive listed above -- sanderuá 'two by two', santátatló 'three by three', etc.)

Ordinal numerals

priméro, onáan, ononá (non-past), inmoná (past) ‘first’

mikaduá, komaduá ‘second’

mikátlo, komátlo ‘third’

mikápat, komápat ‘fourth’

mikalimá, komalimá ‘fifth’

mikaném, kománem ‘sixth’

mikapitó, komapitó ‘seventh’

mikawaló, komawaló ‘eighth’

mikasiám, komasiám ‘ninth’

ikasampló, komasámpló ‘tenth’

ikalabinsakéy, komalabinsakéy ‘eleventh’

Fractional numerals

kapaldúa ‘half’

kakatló ‘third (part)’

kakápat ‘fourth (part)’

kakalimá ‘fifth (part)’

kakánem ‘sixth (part)’

kakapitó ‘seventh (part)’

kakawaló ‘eighth (part)’

Affixes associated with numeral stems

(-)CVC- where stem has phonemic shape (V)CVC..., CVV- where shape is CVV..., plus -(i)ra with numerals from 2 to 9, indicates limitation, as in saksakéy ‘one only’, duagduára (note additional infixation of -g) ‘two only’, taltalora ‘three only’. Where the second consonant is /m/, and also often when it is /b/, it will be replaced by /t/ as in litlimára ‘five only’, latlabinduá, lablabinduá ‘twelve only’. Further examples are given above.

ala- with numeral úna, forms verb stem in the same way as alas-, below.

alas- with Spanish derived numerals from two to twelve converts the numeral into a verb stem affixable with nan- (past) or man- (non-past) indicating the time at which an event did or will take place, e.g. manalaskuátro '(it will be) at four', nanalaskuátro '(it was) at four' -- cf. manalaúna (it is/will be) at one'.

ami(n)- [=aN- pi(n)-] frequentative affix, with connotations of completed action (cf. mami (n)-) -- e.g. Pinmasiar kami met lan amidua 'We've been out twice already', aminpólo 'so many times'.

-en added to numeral stems forms verbs with the connotation 'make' or 'baring' the number stated --e.g. Ápaten mo 'make four' Ánemen da ray gomagawá 'They'll bring six workers' or 'They'll increase the number of workers to six'.

-inm- with uná 'first' indicates completed state.

ika- with numerals above nine, indicates order e.g. ikasámplo 'ninth', cf. mika-, koma-.

-(i)ra with numerals from two to ten, and pigá, indicates individuation, e.g. Pigáray sinalíw yo? 'How many did you buy?' -- Analíw ak na anemíra bought six'.

ka- with pigá forms pro-numeral in the frequentative ordinal series -- e.g. Kapigá 'What time?' -- Pipat 'The fourth time'. With other numeral stems ka- Forms completative numerals -- e.g. katló 'that which makes three', kápat 'that which makes four', i.e. anything which brings the total up to the number indicated -- e.g. Waláy katló 'There is a third (person or object, but not in any definite sequence or order)'. The numerals formed with ka- also form the numerator in a fractional statement (with the fractional numerals formed with kaka- acting as the denominator) -- e.g. kaduáy kakalimá 'two fifths'.

kaka- forms fractional numerals, e.g. kakápat 'fourth portion', kakawaló 'eighth portion'. Numerator is formed by numeral affixed with ka- (see above).

koma- forms ordinal numerals, e.g. Binásak may komátlon tekáp (was-read by-me mkr (subj) third lnk chapter). 'I read the third chapter.'

mami (n)- [= maN- pi (n)-] frequentative - non-past connotations, e.g. Mamínlima kan mañgaláy belas (five-times you lnk will-get mkr (obj) rice). '(You will). get the rice in five trips.' Ma-mindué ak a onlád Ibále. 'I'll go twice to Manila.'

man- (C)V- to form verbs indicating 'divide among', 'make so many'; Manaaném kayón mangáway kánen. 'Make six lots of food', 'make the food in six portions or lots'.

mika- with numerals from two to nine, indicates sequential order, e.g. mikaduá 'second in order' (cf. koma-, ika-).

on- with oná 'first', indicates incomplete state.

pi (n)-, with numerals above one, indicates which in a number of occurrences the event etc. spoken of took place -- e.g. Pípat to lan linmá diá... 'the fourth time he came here...'. See preceding section for examples of ordinal frequentative numerals with pi(n)- and the corresponding cardinal frequentative numerals formed from maN- and aN- combined with pi (n)- in the complex prefixes mami (n)-, ami (n)-.

san- (+ (C)V- with numerals from two to nine) distributive (/n/ becomes /m/ before /p/) -- e.g. Sampígay atádom ed sátay sapsáp? (how-much-each pile your from that sapsáp?) 'How much is a pile of sapsáp (fish)?' Abayarán mi santalómplon sén-timos. 'We paid thirty centavos (for) each (item).' Inmalagár irán sanlilíma. 'They walked five by five.' Santatló so inalá mi. 'We got three each.' Note that, in numerals affixed by san-, the type of distribution indicated may be translated in English as 'so many each', 'so much each', or 'so many by so many', depending on the context, as the affix has the general meaning 'in groups of [the number involved]'.

tig- with siám 'nine' (reduplicated to siasiam) indicates distribution, in same way as san- above.

III

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

III

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

In the preceding chapter, words were the center of attention, and little was said about the larger grammatical units, phrases and sentences, in which the words assume their full significance. A sentence may be defined briefly as a word, phrase, or combination of phrases which is grammatically complete and can stand as a complete utterance. A phrase is a word or group of words constituting a unit of sentence structure relevant to the sentence as a whole. In the pages following different kinds of phrases will be identified and discussed in relation to the sentences in which they occur, and this should serve to clarify the rather vague definition just given.

SENTENCE TYPES

For a start, sentences may be divided into two groups - minor and major sentences. Minor sentences are somewhat fragmentary in character and acquire their meaning from the immediate conversational context in which they are found. They include greetings, exclamations, interjections, and similar phenomena. Major sentences include the more substantial elements of conversation, and may be divided into two categories, verbal and equational. The structure of these major sentence types is very similar, but the verbal sentences are somewhat more complex than the purely equational ('verbless') sentences (the latter, as will be shown, are not necessarily literally verbless, but the role of the verb is quite different in each sentence type).

MINOR SENTENCES

Greetings

The following sentence contains all the elements of a normal greeting:

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(Masantós a) ngárem ed sikayó (máma) (blessed lnk afternoon to you (rsp) sir). 'Good afternoon, sir.'

The adjective maábig 'good' is sometimes substituted for masantós, or this segment of the sentence may be omitted. Depending on the time of day, ágew 'day', kabuasán 'morning', lábi 'night', evening, may replace ngárem. The singular pronoun siká may be used if the addressee is younger than or an intimate or subordinate of the greeter. The greeting concludes with a term of address (e.g. máma, agí 'younger person of same generation' etc.), the personal name of the addressee (Pedro, Juan, etc.) or the formal name (Don Pedro, Mr. Santos etc.).

Replies to greetings

The normal reply to the above greeting is simply:

Ontán met ed siká, (Pedro) (like that too to you, Peter.

Again, the use of siká or sikayó, and the term of address used, if any, will depend on the status of the persons involved in relation to each other, and their degree of familiarity. To this reply some variant of the question Panóy bilabiláy nátan ey? 'How's life now eh?' will often be added, the reply to which is likely to end in a minor sentence:

Sikayó eh (you eh)? 'And how about you?'

Depending on the situation, greetings may also take the form of statements like Onsempét tayó la! 'We're all here!', which fall within the bounds of major sentences.

Farewells

With three notable exceptions, farewells usually take the form of statements (major sentences) like Manpátanír ak la. 'I'll say goodbye already'; Benegán ta ka ni sínin ditán. 'You'll be left here by me yet', and so on. The exceptions are the replies to the farewells Sapá komóy Dios so mantalimak sikatayón amin. 'It is hoped that God will take care of us all', Sapá komón (anticipated hopefully)! 'May it be so!'; and onla kamí/ak la 'We/I will go already' (said by a departing guest), to which the host replies, Tíla la (we-inclusive-already already) 'We are all going!'; as well as the single word farewell, Adiós! 'Goodbye'.

Interjections

Interjections are words expressing hesitation, exclamation of surprise, anger and similar moods or emotions which are in a sense appended to or inserted in a statement made by the speaker or addressee, but which do not form an integral part of the statement concerned. Some interjections also occur as responses to non-linguistic events. Some of the most frequently encountered interjections in Pangasinan are:

<u>á</u>	'Really!', 'huh?' (can also indicate hesitation, pleading, etc.)
<u>agáy</u>	'Goodness me', 'how [big, good etc.]'
<u>agí!</u>	'Ouch!'
<u>ay</u>	'well ...', 'oh!', 'by the way ...'
<u>bástos!</u>	indicates disgust or extreme annoyance with what has taken place --this is somewhat like a 'swear word' in English (lit. 'indecent')
<u>é</u>	'Oh', 'Well then'
<u>ó</u>	'Oh'
<u>óy</u>	'Hey'
<u>Sós!</u>	indicates annoyed or shocked surprise (a somewhat milder term than <u>bástos</u>); it is derived from <u>Jesus</u> , and may be intensified by adding the names of the other members of the Holy Family: <u>Sós, Mariá, José!</u> 'Good Heavens above!', 'What in God's name ...'

Other minor sentences

The following expressions also constitute minor sentences:

<u>andí</u>	'No'
<u>ón</u>	'Yes'
<u>ón a tuá</u>	'Yes indeed'
<u>salámat</u>	'Thanks'
<u>sígi</u>	'O.K.', 'Carry on', 'Go ahead'

EQUATIONAL SENTENCES

Equational sentences consist fundamentally of two parts, a TOPIC and a COMMENT. The topic could also be called the 'subject' of the sentence, but we will reserve the latter term for verbal sentences. The comment stands first in the sentence, and identifies the topic.

The comment phrase

The comment may consist of an interrogative pro-phrase, an adjective, independent pronoun, a phrase introduced by *tagá*, *pára*, *singá* or by a locational demonstrative, a noun phrase either preceded by an article (or the personal marker *si* for personal nouns) or unmarked. It may be simple (a single phrase), complex (more than one phrase, the second dependent on or in apposition to the first) or discontinuous. Discontinuous comments consist of one of the elements listed above, plus a time, reason, or locative phrase (unless a phrase of the same type forms the first part of the comment), this latter part of the comment coming after the topic.

The topic phrase

The topic phrase consists of a topic marker (usually *so* or *may*) followed by a phrase or by a part of a verbal sentence; in the latter case, the comment is usually the subject of the verbal sentence placed in apposition to the remainder of the sentence for purposes of emphasis. The topic may also take the form of a topic pronoun or an appropriate demonstrative.

Examples:

The following sentences are representative of the possible combinations described above. Comment and topic phrases are each enclosed in double square brackets.

[[*Inér*]] [[*so la-en mo*]] (where mkr will-be-gone by-you)? 'Where are you going?'

[[*Si-opá*]] [[*-y íba-m*]] (who mkr companion + your)? 'Who's your friend?'

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[[Nátan]] [[so panag-pará-an la-y biní]] (now mkr occasion-of-preparing already + mkr seedling). ‘It’s now the time to prepare the seedlings for planting’

[[Antó]] [[-y ñgarán to]] (what mkr name his). ‘What’s his name?’

[[Pagá-ra]] [[-y i-salíw yo]] (how-many mkr will-be-bought by you)? ‘How many will you buy?’

[[Pigá]] [[ya]] (how-much this)? ‘How much is this?’

[[Béngér]] [[imáy ogáw]] (naughty mkr boy). ‘The boy is naughty.’

[[Ma-írap]] [[so mangi-pasál na ka-íba]] (difficult mkr to-teach obj servant). ‘It’s hard to teach servants what to do.’

[[Kapiacán]] [[so labáy yo-n i-akár]] (when mkr wanted by-you + lnr will-be-gone)? ‘When would you like to go?’

[[Walá]] [[-y libro-k]] (existing mkr book + my). ‘I have a book.’

[[Siák]] [[so aka-oláy ed sá-ray to-tóo-n opa-án]] (I mkr happened-to-organize to the people + lnr will be paid). ‘I was the one who looked after the hired hands.’

[[Sikató]] [[si Juan]] (he mkr John). ‘He is John.’

[[Tagá inér]] [[ø]] (from where he)? ‘Where is he from?’

[[Tagá Alamínos]] [[kamí]] (from Alaminos we (excl)). ‘We’re from Alaminos.’

[[Pára si-opá]] [[may súlat]] (for who mkr letter)? ‘For whom is the letter?’

[[Libro]] [[tan]] (book that-near-you). ‘That’s a book.’

[[Singá olég]] [[may ígat]] (as-if snake mkr eel). ‘The eel looks like a snake.’

[[Dimád lamisáan]] [[imáy baráng]] (there-on table mkr bolo). ‘The bolo is on the table.’

[[Say rádio]] [[so paka-pi-kabat-án na balíta]] (the radio mkr source-of-information-about obj. news). ‘The news is broadcast over the radio.’

[[Walá]] [[-y iba-k]] (existing mkr companion + my). ‘I have a companion.’

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

[[Íba-k]] [[so akuláw ko]] (companion + my mkr wife my). ‘My wife is my companion.’

[[Si Juan]] [[so maéstro mi]] (mkr Juan mkr teacher our-excl). ‘Juan is our teacher.’

[[Marabók [[Ø]] diá]] (dusty it here). ‘It’s dusty here.’

[[Pigára-n tóon [[so gáwe-en di Flora]] -n leche flan]] (how-many + lmk dishes mkr will-be-made mkr Flora lmk leche flan)? ‘How many dishes of Leche Flan will Flora and her family make?’

[[Si Mondong]] [[so para-asól]] (mkr Mondong mkr responsible for fetching water). ‘Mondong is the one who gets the water.’

[[Pigá [[ya]] ey]] (how-much this eh)? ‘How much is this?’

[[Dakél [[so toó]] la no ka-pa-pawáy]] (many mkr man already when coming-out). ‘There will be many people when it’s time to go.’

[[Ma-liké-likét [[si Nílo]] ta lakí so inm-oná-n anak to]] (very-happy mkr Nilo because male mkr first + lmk child his). ‘Nilo was very happy because his first child was a boy.’

(This sentence contains a second equational sentence -- [[lakí]] [[so inmonán anak to]] --embedded in the comment of the main sentence).

[[Diá-d Pangasinán ya singá diá-d sáray ni-ka-sika-sikmát ya pásen ed Filipínas, say san-ka- tuy-túyak-án ya anap-án]] [[so say garíta]] (here in Pangasinan lmk like here at the various lmk place in Philippines the most-widely-distributed lmk livelihood mkr the small-store). ‘Here in Pangasinan, just as in the rest of the Philippines, the most widely distributed commercial activity is the sari-sari store.’

Inverted equational sentences

Occasionally, the comment-topic order is reversed. This is most commonly encountered when the topic is the subject of a sentence forming part of the comment, or when the comment is preceded by an adversative conjunction (e.g. et).

Examples:

[[Si asawá-k]] [[máong ya man-lúto-y kán-en na Filipínas]] (mkr spouse + my good lnk to-cook + mkr food of Philippines). ‘My wife is good at cooking Filipino food.’

[[Aliwá-n amín ya Amerikáno]] et [[ma-kuárta]] (not + lnk all lnk American however wealthy). ‘Not all Americans are wealthy.’

Negating equational sentences

Except for equational sentences where the topic and comment are separated by an adversative conjunction, as in the last example above, the comment phrase stands first in a negative equational sentence. The existential adjective walá is negated by replacement with anggapó; otherwise the first element in the negative sentence will be the composite agá ‘it [is] not’, or aliwá ‘not’ plus the linker -n. Either agá or aliwán may be used if the first word in the comment is an adjective or a phrase introduced by an identifying preposition (tagá etc.); otherwise aliwán is used. The adjective maóng may also be negated with the contracted form alimaóng.

Examples:

(The positive form follows the negative in parentheses. The boundaries of the comment and topic are indicated as in the preceding examples only when they may be unclear to the reader.)

Aliwán líbro ya. ‘This is not a book.’ (Líbro ya). If it is desired to say ‘This is X not Y’, the positive and negative sentences follow each other, with the topic deleted from the latter: Líbro ya, aliwán kahón. ‘This is a book, not a box.’

[[Agá maóng [[si asawám]] ya manlútoy kánen na Filipínas]] (or Aliwan maóng Alimaóng ...). ‘Your wife is not good at cooking Filipino food’ ([[Si asawám]] [[maóng ya manlútoy kanén na Filipínas]] (Topic + Comment)).

Aliwán sikarán amín so táwagen to. ‘Not all of them were called by him’ (Sikarán amín so táwagen to).

Agá singá yúro ámay baráng. ‘That bolo is not like a dagger’ (Singá yúro ámay baráng).

Aliwán singá onpapatéy no mansalíta may too. ‘The man does not sound like a dying person when he speaks’ (Singá onpapatéy ...).

[[Aliwán maóng [[ø]] ya sinmabí kayó]] ‘It’s not good that you came.’ ([[Maóng [[ø]] ta sinmabí kayó]] -- note how in the negative sentence the particle ta ‘because’ is replaced by the linker ya).

Anggapóy íbak. ‘I have no companion.’ (Waláy íbak).

Cross reference to attributive and topic pronouns

In both equational and verbal sentences, an attributive pronoun may be followed by a phrase marked as topic and identifying the entity represented by the pronoun (in verbal sentences this order may be reversed and the identificational phrase precede the verb when the pronoun concerned represents the phrase attributive of action --see the appropriate section below for comment and examples). This relationship between the pronoun and a topic phrase is called cross-reference. This phenomenon is particularly common where an attributive phrase has emphatic force, in which case it will almost invariably be pronominalized and form part of a comment phrase (together with the word or phrase to which it is attributive), to which the other phrase in the cross reference relationship functions as topic.

Examples: (attributive pronoun + appo-sitional phrase)

Kolaán to may anáko (whereabouts his mkr (topic) child + my)?
‘Where is my child?’

Waláy bigís to may kamátis (existing + mkr (topic) caterpillar its mkr (topic) tomato). ‘The tomato has caterpillars (i.e. has been attacked by caterpillars).’

Dakél so sangá to may kiew (many mkr (topic) branch its mkr (topic) tree). ‘The tree has many branches.’

Anengnéng to ák si Pedro (was-seen by-him I mkr (topic) Pedro). ‘I was seen by Pedro.’ (In this example emphasis is not involved --see section on cross-reference in verbal sentences, below.)

Say gáween tayó so onlád kaabongán day amimíga (the will-be-done by-us mkr (topic) will-go + to houses their + mkr (topic) friends). 'What we'll do is go to the houses of friends.'

Similarly, an appositive phrase may be pronominalized with a topic pronoun, and be followed by another appositive phrase marked by so (or -y), giving a sequence of attributive pronoun, and topic phrase in cross-reference to both pronouns.

Example: (attributive + topic pronoun + appositional phrase)

No ontán walá met so betáñg da ray aga akaonlá dimád bánsal yo (if like-that existing also mkr (topic) share their they + mkr (topic) not happened-to-go there + to wedding your). 'If that's the case there's also a share for (those) who didn't manage to attend your wedding' (da = ra = so agá akaonlá ...).

A topic phrase or the subject of a verbal sentence may also be pronominalized, and the phrase it represents be placed in apposition following it and also marked as topic. This construction is limited to phrases which may be represented by plural or respect pronouns, as the third person topic pronoun has no phonological representation except in negative constructions.

Examples: (topic pronoun + appositional phrase)

Labáy yo kasí ray kánen diá (liked by-you isn't-it they + mkr (topic) food here). 'So you like the food here' (ra = so kánen diá).

Komósta iray balón kásal ey (how-are they + mkr (topic) new + lnk marriage eh). 'And how are the newly weds?' (irá = so balón kásal).

Labáy ko met ya mikábat iráy kakanáyon nen Cion (liked by-me also lnk mutually-know they relatives of Cion -- irá is subject of labáy; ya mikábat is linked to the latter). 'I would like to meet Cion's relatives' (irá = so kakanáyon nen Cion).

Wadiá ra di Nána Juána (existing-here she (resp) mkr (resp) Nana Juana). 'Nana Juana is here' (ra = di Nána Juána).

VERBAL SENTENCES

Structure of verbal sentences

A verbal sentence in Pangasinan consists minimally of a verb, together with a subject, although the latter may be represented merely by the zero form of the third person singular pronoun. Such a minimal sentence may be expanded by the addition of one or more phrases belonging to grammatical categories which may also appear as subjects of verbs, as well as other phrases which do not fall within the range of potential subjects. Further expansions are possible through the use of phrases and sentences incorporated into other sentences and phrases by means of coordinating and subordinating particles, including the linker ya. This last kind of expansion has already been discussed and illustrated in Part II, in connection with the particles concerned, and will not be discussed further here. Instead, attention will be concentrated on the verb phrase and those phrases which may enter into a focus relationship with the verb.

The verb phrase

The verb phrase consists of a verb stem, either unaffixed (as in certain imperative constructions and with a number of inherently passive stems, discussed above (Part II)), or with at least one verbal affix marked for focus and tense/aspect. This minimal verb phrase may be expanded by the addition of certain adverbial particles (e.g. la 'already', ni 'yet') or by a linked adjectival phrase (e.g. oniróng ... ya mareén (will-sit ... lnk quiet) '... will sit quietly'), These constructions have also been illustrated in the relevant sections of Part II.

Potential subjects of the verbal sentence

The verbal sentence may contain one or more of a number of phrases which may be transformed into subject of such a sentence in the presence of an appropriately affixed verb stem. These phrases are those representing (1) the entity to which the action of the verb is attributed, (2) the grammatical object, (3) the referent goal, (4) referent location, (5) the beneficiary, (6) the instrument, and (7) the agent. Only one phrase of each type may appear with the same verb, and only one of these phrases

may be the subject of the verbal sentence. The phrase which constitutes the subject may be said to be in 'focus', and the others described as 'unfocused'.

Each phrase consists of a nucleus (usually a noun, with or without modifying or conjoined elements) preceded by an appropriate marker (as explained and illustrated in Part II). The phrase which is attributive of action may also consist simply of an attributive pronoun, while a locative demonstrative may stand for the referential phrase when this is locative in character. Where state or condition is involved, the nucleus of the phrase may be a verb or adjective; a locative referential phrase also may contain a verb inflected for referent focus in place of a noun. Independent pronouns may also appear in the nucleus of referential goal, benefactive and agentive phrases.

When any one of these phrases appears as subject, however, its nature (attributive, object, referential etc.) is indicated by the focus inflection on the verb stem; the phrase itself is marked by a subject (topic) marker, or represented by a subject (topic) pronoun.

Some selected examples follow; the transformation undergone by the various phrases is further illustrated in the section on focus transformations, below.

Examples:

Binmatík irá (did-run). 'They ran' (subject-pronoun irá represents phrase attribute of action).

Ilaloán koy isabí da (will-be-expected (referent focus) by-me + mkr will-be-arrived by-them). 'I'll be expecting their arrival' (attributive pronoun ko represents attribute of actions; subject/referent is phrase consisting of another verb plus attributive pronouns).

Ibatík nen Pedro may manók (will-be-run-away-with (object-focus verb) mkr (atr) Pedro mkr (subj) chicken). 'Pedro will run away with the chicken' (attributive phrase marked by nen, grammatical object identified by object-focus inflection *i*-and subject marker may).

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Mangibatík si Pedro na manók (will-run-away-with mkr (subj) Pedro mkr (obj) chicken). 'Pedro will run away with the chicken.' (Cf. previous sentence. Here, subject marked by si is identified as attribute of action by active verbal affix mangi-, while object is marked as such by na).

Manloto ak na sirá para kinen Cora. 'I'll cook the fish for Cora.' (Attribute of action represented by subject pronoun, identified by active verbal affix man-, object marked by na, beneficiary marked by para.)

Initdán to kamí na libro (was-given-for (Benefactive focus) by-him we mkr(obj) book). 'He gave us the book.' (Attributive phrase represented by attributive pronoun to, beneficiary by subject pronoun kamí and identified as beneficiary by verbal affix in- ... -an, object marked by na.)

Panpoterén to ak na kiéw da (will-be-made-to-cut (agent focus) by-him I mkr(obj) wood their). 'He'll make me cut their wood.' (Attributive phrase represented by to, agent by subject pronoun ak and identified by verbal affix pan- ... -en, object marked by na.)

Nakargaán na buér itáy botílya (will-be-filled mkr(atr) sand mkr(subj) bottle). 'The bottle will be filled with sand.' (Attributive phrase marked by na, subject by itáy and identified as referent-goal by verbal affix na- ... -an.)

Dimád abóng so akanéngnengan ak ed sámáy retráto (there + at house mkr(topic) happened-to-be-seen by-me mkr(ref) the photograph). 'It was in the house [that] I happened to see the photograph.' (Subject is also comment of equational sentence (see section on emphasis, below) and is identified as referent (location) by verbal affix aka- -an; attributive phrase is represented by attributive pronoun, and referent (goal) is marked by ed.)

Ipabangát ko yan sayáw ed marikít (will-be-caused-to-teach by-me this + lnk dance mkr (ref/ agent) maiden). 'I'll make the girl teach this dance.' (Attributive pronoun ko represents attributive phrase; demonstrative subject pronoun ya 'this' plus linked noun constitutes subject phrase, identified as object by verbal affix i- with causative prefix pa-; agent is marked by ed. For further notes on phrases denoting agent, see section on effect of causative voice on focus relationships, below.)

Ónla ka ed Ibále (will-go I mkr (ref) Manila) ‘I’ll go to Manila.’
(Subject pronoun ak identified as representing phrase attributive of action by verbal affix on-; referent (location) marked by ed.)

Inpananáp nen Pedro imáy línte ed sámay manók. ‘Pedro looked for the chicken with the flashlight.’ (Attributive phrase marked by nen; subject marked by imáy and identified as instrument by verbal affix inpan- ... -an; referent-goal marked by ed.)

Kinméktal may tabá ed betél (became-congealed mkr(subj) fat mkr(ref/inst) cold). ‘The fat congealed due to the cold.’

Other phrases

Phrases of time, reason, contingency etc. may also appear within the verbal sentence. Such phrases have been illustrated in Part II in connection with the particles which mark them. Verbal sentences may also contain subordinate or coordinate phrases (which may themselves be verbal sentences), as has also been illustrated above in connection with the linker ya and other particles.

Example:

Sanó sábado pabángaten kon onsayáw si Linda ta onpawíl diá
(on Saturday will-be-caused-to-teach by-me + lnk will-dance mkr (subj) Linda because will-return \emptyset = she here). ‘On Saturday I’ll make Linda teach dancing because she’ll be returning here.’
(Time phrase marked by sanó; attribute represented by ko; subject/agent marked by si and identified by -en in relation to causative pa-; subordinate phrase linked by ya (-n), displaced by pronoun: see section on word order below); reason phrase marked by particle ta.)

Order of phrases within the verbal sentence

Normal order

The ‘normal’ ordering of a verbal sentence is (1) verb phrase; (2) attributive phrase; (3) grammatical object; (4) referent goal, agent or instrument phrase (all these are marked in the same way when not in focus, and normally only one occurs in any particular sentence); (5) referent location; (6) benefi-

ciary; (7) time phrase; (8) reason or other conjoined phrase. The time phrase is frequently placed in a position of emphasis at the head of the sentence, and linked subordinate elements in the verb phrase may be displaced by the attributive phrase, especially when the latter is pronominalized. (See the example in the immediately preceding section above for an illustration of both occurrences.) Changes in word order are most commonly attributable to the effects of pronominalization, emphasis, negation and cross-reference, as well as some focus transformations.

Emphasis

Subject functioning as comment phrase

An emphasized phrase which is also the subject of the verb precedes the verb and forms the comment of an equational sentence, the topic of which is the remainder of the verbal sentence, marked by so.

Examples:

Sikató so akanengnéng ed siká (he mkr (topic) happened-to-see mkr (ref) you). 'He [I's the one who] happened to see you.' (= Akanengnéng ed siká).

Siák so anengéng nen Pedro (I mkr (topic) was-seen by Pedro). 'I [I'm the one who] was seen by Pedro.' (= Anengnéng to ak si Pedro -- see section on pronominalization below.)

Ámay sípit so inpangekál nen Juán ed sámay sakób (the tongs mkr (topic) lifted-with by Juan mkr (ref) the lid). 'The tongs were [what was] used by Juan to lift the lid.' (= Inpangekál nen Juan imáy sípit ed sámay sakób.) (There is a change in phrase order here because of the transformation of instrument to subject and shift of object to referent. See section on effects of focus transformations on phrase order, below.)

Say tinápay so inpakán to ed sámay asók (the bread mkr (topic) was-fed by-him mkr (ref) the dog + my). '[It was] the bread [that] he fed to my dog.' (= Inpakán toy tinápay ed sámay asók.)

Dimád garden so nananapán nen Pedro na manók. '[It was] in the garden [that] Pedro looked for the chicken.' (In referent focus (location) sentences of this type, the subject is normally emphasized --see notes below.)

Sámay ogáw so pinaakís to may balolakí (the boy mkr (topic) was-made-cry by-him mkr (topic) bachelor). ‘The boy was [the one who] was made to cry by the bachelor.’ (= Pinnakís to may ogáw may balolakí.)

There is no ambiguity in the last example above, as the emphasized element in non-referent focus sentences is always the subject of the sentence when the topic-comment equational relationship is marked by the presence of so. Therefore may balolakí is in apposition to the pronoun to in the emphatic sentence. In the non-emphatic sentence in parentheses, the apposed topic phrase (may balolakí) is displaced by the subject/grammatical object. In any such sequence of identically marked topic subject phrases, the first will be the subject of the sentence, and the second will relate to the pronominalized attributive phrase.

Emphasis of time phrase

Time phrases may be emphasized either by simply placing them first in the sentence, or, with certain intransitive verbs inflected for object focus (passivity), by using the equational construction illustrated above. In the latter case, however, the emphasized time phrase may not be de-emphasized by placing it in the post-verbal position appropriate for the subject of a passive sentence.

Examples:

Sanó sábado onpawíl kayó diá (on Saturday will-return you here). ‘You’ll come back on Saturday!’

Diád sábado so isipót da (here + at Saturday mkr (topic) will-be-departed by-them). ‘They’ll be going next Saturday.’

Emphasis of referent of location

In sentences where the verb is inflected for referent focus, a locative referent is placed in a position of emphasis and the remainder of the sentence marked as topic of an equational sentence by so whenever a goal referent is also present in the sentence whether or not the latter is also the subject. This construction is also very common in other sentences with a locative referent subject.

Examples:

Dimád abóng so anganán nen Pedro may mansáнас (there + at house mkr (topic) was-eaten-on mkr (atr) Pedro mkr (subj) apple). ' [It was] in the house [that] Pedro ate the apple.'

Diád lamisáан so angitilakán nen Juan na lápís (here + at table mkr (topic) was-left-on mkr (atr) Juan mkr (obj) pencil). ' [It was] on the table [that] Juan left the pencil.'

Shift of subject in emphatic equation-type verbal sentences

In referent-focus sentences like the two examples above, where the locative referential phrase is in a position of emphasis, the object phrase may be treated as a goal-referent and be marked as subject, or a potential goal-referent may be treated as an object phrase. Thus Dimád abóng so anganán nen Pedro may mansáнас (may mansáнас goal-referent/subject) may also appear as Dimád abóng so anganán nen Pedro na mansáнас (na mansáнас object phrase), while Diád lamisáан so angitilakán nen Juan na lápís may also be stated Diád lamisáан so angitilakán nen Juan may lápís.

Much less frequently, an object phrase may sometimes be marked as the subject of an active sentence when the attributive phrase (the 'real' subject) is emphasized and the remainder of the sentence marked by so, as for example Siák so mangitolór may búro. I'll [be the one to] take the búro (non-emphatic form mangitolór ak na búro). It seems that in sentences of this type may acts as a kind of definite article, rather than a subject marker.

Displacement of focused attributive phrase by object phrase

In active sentences and when neither phrase is pronominalized, an unfocused object phrase may occur directly after the verb and function in much the same way as a linked phrase, adding emphasis to the comment-topic like relationship between the rest of the sentence and the subject.

Examples:

Kinmérew na kúarta si Araceli kinen báí to (did-ask mkr (obj) money mkr (subj) Araceli mkr (ref) grandmother her). 'Araceli asked her grandmother for money.'

Say kúanto so pasiromán na pinaór so babóy to (the said + by-him mkr (topic) cause-to-be-shaded-upon mkr (obj) nipa-thatch mkr (subj) pig his). 'She says she will shelter her pig with nipa roofing.'

Displacement of focused attributive phrase by independent demonstrative.

An independent demonstrative may sometimes occur immediately following the verb phrase in an active sentence to emphasize the locative direction of the action, in much the same manner as the object phrase marks the presence of a goal in the examples immediately above.

Example:

Linmá diá may toón somisingil na siléw (did-come here mkr (subj) man + lnr debt-collector mkr (atr) light). 'The man who collects the light bill came here.'

An example of such a preposed demonstrative and a following pronoun placed before the verb phrase is given in the section on emphasis of subject pronouns, below.

Emphasis of unfocused attributive phrase

When the phrase representing the entity to which the action of the verb is attributed is not the subject of the sentence, it may be pronominalized and followed by an appositive phrase marked as topic. (See section on cross-reference to attributive pronouns in equational sentences, above, for examples.) When such a topic phrase is emphasized, it is simply placed first in the sentence with no intervening marker.

Examples:

Si Pedro inpawíl to may líbio (mkr (topic) Pedro was-returned by-him mkr (subj) book). 'Pedro returned the book.' (Derived from Inpawíl to may líbro si Pedro (non-emphatic as far as the sentence is concerned) from Inpawíl nen Pedro may líbro.)

Si Pedro tanemán toy pónti imáy jardín nen Juan (mkr Pedro will-be planted-at by-him + mkr (obj) banana mkr (subj) garden of Juan). 'Pedro will be planting John's garden with bananas.' (This is the least clumsy way of stating this sentence derived from tanemán nen Pedro na pónti imáy jardín nen Juan.)

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Emphasis of subject pronoun

Except in negative sentences (see below) a subject pronoun does not normally appear in a preverbal position. In equational emphatic verbal sentences the comment phrase formed from the subject is pronominalized by using independent pronouns (e.g. siák so akaoláy 'I'm (the one who is) in charge' from akaoláy ak). However, for special effect, the normal word order of a sentence may be disarranged, and a subject pronoun may be among the elements shifted to a pre-verbal position, without any intervening markers. A similar construction may also be used when the time-interrogative kapigán is followed by an active sentence.

Examples:

Dimád kamí binmáleg ed Maníla (there we did-grow-up in Manila). '[It was] there we grew up, in Manila' (normal order: Bin-máleg kamí dimád Maníla).

Kapigán ka nanpatámbal ed ospítal? 'When were you treated in the hospital?'

Preposed pronouns may also occur with emphatic linked adjectival phrases. See section immediately following for examples.

Emphasis of linked adjective in verb phrase

Normally a phrase linked to the verb by ya (i.e. ya, a, or n) or na occurs immediately after the verb when the action-attributive phrase is not pronominalized, or following the pronoun representing the latter phrase. Such phrases consisting of a linker plus adjective may be emphasized by reversing the order of the elements preceding the verb. Thus verb (+ intervening pronoun) + linker + adjective becomes adjective + linker (+ intervening + pronoun) + verb. This is also the normal order when the adjective-like time word antes ('before') appears in a subordinate sentence.

Examples:

Maplés kan nanakár. 'You walked strongly.' (= Nanakár kan maplés.) (Maplés kan manakár. 'You (will) walk strongly' can also be interpreted as an equational sentence. Maplés ya manakár = comment, ka = topic).

Matantán a binmatík si Pedro. ‘Pedro ran slowly.’ (= Binmatík na matantán si Pedro.)

Abayág lan ag kamí nannengnengán (long already + lnk not + we reciprocally-seen). ‘It’s a long time since we’ve seen each other.’ (This is probably the least clumsy construction for a negative sentence of this kind, but cf. Manáalagar kamín abayág la (waiting we + lnk long already). ‘We’ve been waiting a long time.’

Pronominalization

Within the verbal sentence three sets of personal pronouns are used. The subject may be represented by a subject/topic pronoun (ak, ka, etc.), an unfocused action-attributive phrase by an attributive pronoun (ko, mo etc.), and a goal-referent, object, agent, or benefactive phrase by the appropriate marker (para for beneficiary, ed for the remainder) followed by an independent pronoun (siák, siká etc.). The use of these pronouns has been discussed above in Part II, and in some sections of Part III. The following notes deal with aspects of pronominalization not yet dealt with, especially in relation to word order.

Pronominalization of action-attributive phrase

An attributive pronoun representing an unfocused action-attributive phrase occurs immediately following the verb-stem. The same position is occupied by a subject pronoun when the action-attributive phrase is in focus except that the pronoun irá (ra) does not displace the particle la when the latter occurs contiguous to the verb.

When a focused object is represented by a subject pronoun, the preceding attributive phrase is automatically pronominalized and re-stated in an appositional phrase in cross reference to the attributive pronoun used. The appositional phrase may be placed in a position of emphasis before the verb, or in a non-emphatic position following the object phrase.

The attributive pronoun ko ‘by me’ is replaced by ta when followed by either ka ‘you (sing)’ or kayó ‘you (pl. or resp.)’.

Examples:

Itanemán koy Juan na pónti (will-be-planted-for by-me + mkr (subj) Juan mkr (obj) banana). ‘I’ll plant the banana for Juan.’

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Si Pedro intamemán to kay pónti (mkr Pedro was-planted-for by-him I + mkr (obj) banana). 'Pedro planted the bananas for me.'

Anengnéng da kamí irámay kabkaábay to (were-seen by-them we mkr (topic) neighbors his). 'We were seen by his neighbors.'

Línma la ra dimád Binmaléy (did-go already they there + at Bimaleý). 'They've already gone to Binmaley.'

Angán ak la na bayábas (did-eat I already mkr (obj) guava). 'I already ate the guava.'

Gústok lay ongíp (wanted + by-me already + mkr (subj) will-sleep). 'I want to sleep.'

Ináro ta ka (loved by-me you). 'I love you.'

Pronominalization of plural attributive phrases

Attributive phrases which are not subjects of verbal sentences and which are explicitly marked for plurality (e.g. those containing nouns inflected for multiplicity) are pronominalized with da and re-stated in the form of an appositional phrase. The same construction may also be used when it is desired to indicate plurality without marking this explicitly in the noun phrase itself.

Examples:

Labáy day onsayáw may marikít (liked by-them + mkr (subj) will-dance mkr (topic = attributive) maidens). 'The girls would like to dance.' (Cf. Labáy na marikít so onsayáw. 'The girl (s) would like to dance.') Písta day inatáy 'fiesta of the dead' (plurality made explicit -- cf. pístay inatáy 'fiesta of the dead' but plurality implicit only).

Kuaréntay síngko so diéta day mamaéstros ya inspectóres (forty + and five mkr(topic) per-diem their + mkr(= appositive) teachers lnk inspectors) 'The teacher-inspectors' per diem will be 45 pesos.' (Cf. diéta na balolakí or diétay balolakí '(the) young man's per diem'.)

A similar construction is possible with subject/ topic pronouns; furthermore, a topic pronoun may appear in apposition to an attributive pronoun in a sequence attributive pronoun + topic pronoun + appositional phrase. See section on cross-

reference to attributive and topic pronouns in relation to discussion of equational sentences (above) for examples of these latter constructions.

Pronominalization of focused phrase other than
action-attributive

When a referent of location is subject of the sentence, it may be represented by an independent demonstrative (e.g. dimán), without any change in the ordering of other elements in the sentence (although, as was noted above, such phrases are most commonly encountered as the comments of equation-type emphatic verbal sentences). Other focused phrases are represented by subject/topic pronouns, which occur immediately following the pronoun representing the action-attributive phrase and displacing any intervening material, again with the exception of the pronoun irá, which never precedes the particle la.

Examples:

Inlakoán da kayó na óto (was-sold-for by-them you mkr(obj) car).
'They sold the car for you.' (Cf. Active sentence Nanláko iray óto párad sikayó.)

Tamenán toy pónti dimán (will-be-planted-at by-him + mkr(obj) banana there). 'He'll plant bananas there.' (Cf. active sentence Mantánem na pónti dimán.)

Ibangát mi kayó (will-be-taught by-us you). 'You'll be taught by us.' (cf. Mangibangát kami ed sikayó.)

Pronominalization of unfocused non-attributive phrases

Unfocused locative referent phrases may be pronominalized by replacement with independent demonstratives. Other non-attributive phrases, including object phrases, are pronominalized by the appropriate independent pronoun, which is preceded by the marker para (or para + ed) for benefactive phrases, and by the referent marker ed for all other phrases which come within the category of potential subjects. The pronominalization of these phrases does not affect the word order of the sentence.

Examples:

Mangibangát si Juan ed sikató (will-teach mkr (subj) John mkr(ref (= obj)) him). 'John will teach him.' (cf. Mangibangát si Juan na ogáw (will-teach mkr John mkr(obj) child). 'John will teach the child.' See section on focus transformations, below, for comments on substitution of referent markers for object markers.)

Angipabatík may áwel na manók ed sikató (caused-to-run-off-with mkr(subj) ne'ver do well mkr(obj) chicken mkr(ref (= agent)) him). 'The ne'er do well made him run off with the chicken.' (Another agent phrase, e.g. ed ogáw (mkr(ref) boy) could substitute for ed sikató.)

Akitongtóng may ogáw ed sikará (did-mutually-talk mkr(subj) boy mkr(ref) them). 'The boy talked with them.' (The referential phrase ed sikará could be replaced e.g. by kinen Pedro 'to Pedro', ed balolakí 'to the young man'.)

Displacement of linked complements by subject and attributive pronouns.

As the subject and attributive pronouns are placed as close as possible to the verb stem, those parts of the verb phrase which follow the main verb are displaced by the pronouns concerned. Examples of this displacement as it affects linked phrases are given below. When the periphery of the verb phrase includes particles, further complications arise in the displacement process; these are discussed in the next section. In noun phrases, the noun nucleus has the same relationship to the attributive pronoun as does a verb stem in a verb phrase, and linked elements accordingly follow the attributive pronoun in noun phrases also.

Examples:

Nibangát kamín maóng dimád Peace Corps (weretaught we + lnk good there + at Peace Corps). 'We were well taught in the Peace Corps.' (V[erb] P[hrase] = nibangát ya maóng)

Manálagar ak na manálagar. 'I'll wait and wait.' (VP = manálagar ya manálagar.)

Ákin sírin et síporen dan kémelen, a? (why then however will-be-so-soon by-them + lnk will-be-caught eh). 'Why is it that they catch [the fish] so early [in their development]?' (VP = síporen ya kémelen).

Walá sírin so páteyen dan babóy (existing then mkr(topic) will-be-killed by-them + lnk pig). 'So they'll be butchering pork.' (VP = páteyen ya babóy.)

Sisiáen ko ya ináro to ak ya talagá (is-believed by-me that(lnk) will-be-loved by-him I lnk truly). 'I believe he really loves me.' ((Subordinate) VP = ináro ya talagá.)

Gáwaen koy nayarián kon makasabí ak na masakbáy (will-be-done by-me + mkr(subj) can-be-accomplished by-me + lnk can-arrive I lnk early). 'I'll do what I can so I can get there early.' ((Subordinate) VP = maksabí na masakbáy.)

Waláy íba ton Pilipíno (existing friend his + lnk Filipino). 'He has a Filipino friend.' (N[oun] P[hrase] = íban Pilipíno + to.)

Pinaltóg toy kapára ton toó (was-shot by-him + mkr(subj) co-equal his + lnk man). 'He shot his fellow man.' (NP = kapáran toó + to.)

Displacement of particles contiguous to verb

As has been noted on several occasions above, subject and attributive pronouns will displace particles which are normally closely associated with the verb stem. When the particles la and ni are so displaced, they will occur immediately following the subject pronoun if the subject is pronominalized, or otherwise following the attributive pronoun representing the action-attributive phrase, displacing any complement linked to the pronoun concerned.

If the particle la appears contiguous to the subject-pronoun irá, the order is reversed to form the combination lára (la ra). The subject pronouns itá and itayó often assume the form ití (tí) in combination with la, and the pronouns ka and kayo similarly may assume the form ki.

Examples:

Labáy ko ni nilutó (liked by-me still + mkr(subj) (= Ø) rice). 'I'd still like some rice.' (VP = labáy ni.)

Manóolop itayó lan amín no kapápawil (staying-together we already + lnk all mkr(future) severally-coming-out). 'We'll all be keeping close together when everyone's coming out/Let's all keep close together ...' (VP = manóolóp la, Subject = itayó + ya amín.)

Pinmasiár irán saniná met lan amiduá (did-go-out they + lnk mother-and-child also already + lnk twice). 'The mother and child have already been out together twice.' (VP = pinmasiár + ya saniná + ya amiduá + met + la.)

Nankakábat lára (were-severally-known already + they). 'They already knew one another.' (Cf. Nankakábat kamí la. 'We already knew one another'.)

Nansirá tílay pántat! (did-eat we + laready mudfish). 'We've already had mudfish!' (VP = nansirá la.)

In negative sentences a displaced particle may be carried alone or along with the pronoun which it follows into a pre-verbal position. See the section on negative sentences below for examples.

Negating Verbal Sentences

Equation-type emphatic sentences

Equation-type emphatic sentences are treated like non-verbal equational sentences for purposes of negation -- i.e. the negative adjective aliwá is placed before the comment phrase.

Examples:

Aliwán si Pedro so binmatík (not + lnk mkr Pedro mkr(topic) did-run). 'It was not Pedro [who] ran.'

Aliwán sámay kíndi so sinlíw to may balolakí ed ogáw pára sámay marikít (not + lnk the candy mkr (topic) did-bought by-him mkr(topic = apposition) bachelor mkr(ref) child mkr(benef) the maiden). 'It was not the candy [which] the bachelor bought from the child for the maiden.'

Negating an anaphoric comment phrase

To express a statement of the kind ‘it was X not Y’, an equational construction is frequently employed to make the positive statement, followed by a negated comment phrase for the negative segment. The same procedure may be used when the positive sentence is not emphatic in character, in which case the negated comment represents a negative alternative choice for the subject of the preceding full sentence.

Examples:

Sámay ogáw so angáy mángga, aliwán sámay manók (the boy mkr(topic) did-eat + mkr(obj) mango, not + lnk the chicken). ‘It was the boy who ate the mango, not the chicken.’

Say mángga so kinán to may ogáw aliwán sámay manók (the mango mkr(topic) was-eaten by-him mkr(topic = appositional) boy, not + lnk the chicken). ‘It was the mango which the boy ate, not the chicken.’ (I.e. someone else may have eaten the chicken, but it was not the boy. This sentence is unambiguous in Pangasinan, despite the ambiguity present in almost any simple English translation.)

Nanéngneng tíra aliwán sikató labát (will-be-seen by-us + they not + lnk he only). ‘We’ll be seeing them, not just him.’ (I.e. he is not the only one we’re going to see.)

Anéngneng da tayó aliwán si Pedro (were-seen by-them we, not + lnk mkr Pedro). ‘They saw us, not Pedro.’ (I.e. they did not see Pedro).

Other verbal sentences

Verbal sentences other than those re-structured into a comment-topic dichotomy are negated by the use of the negative particle ag, which may be prefixed to attributive and subject pronouns, verb stems, and certain particles.

Negation of verb, action-attributive, or subject

When the action-attributive phrase is not pronominalized, the sentence may be negated by the prefixation of ag to the verb stem, or, in the case of a third-person subject in an active sentence or third person action-attributive phrase in other verbal sentences, by the use of ag- with the appropriate subject or at-

tributive pronoun standing before the verb in cross-reference to an appositive phrase representing the subject or action-attributive phrases as the case may be.

When the verb is followed by an attributive and/or subject pronoun, the pronouns are preceded by ag- and moved to a pre-verbal position together with whatever particles they may have displaced from the verb phrase. The particle la is always replaced by ni in such circumstances, except in negative imperative constructions (see appropriate section below). When a subject pronoun has a linked complement attached to it and belonging to the phrase it represents, however, it may be left behind in the transfer.

Examples:

Agko ra táwagen (not + by-me, they will-be-called). 'I won't call them.' (From Táwagen do ra.)

Agto tináwag irán amín diá (not + by-him were-called they + link all here). 'He did not call them all here.' (Subject = irán amín, i.e. pronoun plus linked complement.)

Agda tatáwagen si Pedro. 'They are not calling Pedro.' (From Tatáwagen da si Pedro.)

Agák ni mangawawá (not + by-me yet will-marry). 'I'm not getting married yet.' (Cf. Mangasawá ak la. 'I'll be getting married (already)').

Agantá nen Pedro va wadiá ka. 'Pedro doesn't know that you're here (from Antá nen Pedro ya wadiá ka).'

Agko antá ya wadiá ka. 'I didn't know you were here.' (Anták ya wadiá ka.)

Agkamí onpawíl diá. 'We won't come back here.' (Onpawíl Kamí diá).

Agda gústo so onlangóy irámay mamarikít (not + by-them wanted mkr(topic) will-swim mkr(topic = appositive) maidens). 'The girls do not want to swim' (from Gústo day onlangóy irámay mamarikít, or alternatively derived directly from the simpler Gústo day mamarikít so onlangóy (where da + so results from the pronominalization and re-statement of na + mamarikít).

Agá napasóot ya onpawáy si Sélya. 'Celia cannot be forced to come out.' (Napasóot ya onpawáy si Sélya.)

Agirá makasompál na áral da ray anáko (not + they able-to-finish mkr(obj) study their they + mkr (topic) child + my). 'My children cannot finish their studies.' (Makasompál irámay anáko na áral da.)

Negation of non-equational emphatic sentences

A non-equational emphatic sentence is negated by placing the sequence of negative particle, pronouns, and displaced particles between the emphasized subject phrase and the verb.

Examples:

Si Pedro agto básaen may líbrom. 'Pedro didn't read your book' (from Si Pedro básaen toy líbrom).

Si Juan agto ak ni intanemán na pónti (mkr Juan not + by-nim I yet did-plant-for mkr(obj) banana); 'John has not yet planted the banana for me.' (Si Juan intanemán to ak la na pónti).

Negation of imperative sentences.

Negation of an imperative sentence involves the transformation of the original sentence into a declarative sentence inflected for continuous (real, incomplete) aspect. Where the positive imperative sentence is already declarative in form (see section on imperative sentences, below), the only change affecting the verb is that from unreal to real aspect, and the optional addition of la 'already' to the verb phrase. Where an uninflected verb stem is present in the positive sentence, the verb in the negative sentence will be inflected with the active or passive affix (for active and passive uninflected stems respectively.) appropriate to a declarative sentence.

Examples:

Agka oneelék (not + you laughing). 'Don't laugh.' (Positive imperative = Elék ka.)

Agkayó oniiróng 'Don't sit.' (Iróng kayó.)

Agmó tatáwagen irán amín diá (not + by-you being-called they + lnk all here). 'Don't call them all here.' (Táwag mo irán amín diá.)

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Agmó sásamaren si Pedro. 'Don't pick Pedro up.' (Samár mo si Pedro.)

Agyó ra ibabagá. 'Don't invite them.' (Ibagá yo irá.)

Agmó la pílien. 'Don't select [anything].' (Pilién mo so gabáy mo. 'Pick what you would like'.)

Negation of particles in the verb phrase

In the absence of an intervening pronoun, the particles ni 'yet' and met 'also' when contiguous to the verb may be transferred to the pre-verbal position and suffixed to the negative particle ag.

When it occurs in sentence final position, the interrogative particle ta may be preceded by ag; the resulting combination has the same force as English tag-questions like 'isn't it?', 'didn't you?', 'won't he?' etc.

The combination agní, like its English counterpart 'not yet' may also stand as an anaphoric sentence in response to an appropriate question.

Examples:

Agní ginmapóy orán (not + yet did-begin + mkr (subj) rain). 'The rain has not yet started.'

Lantí, bálet ta agmét nayárin taynanán koy gawák ya agní asompál (indeed, but because not + also can + lnr will-be-left by-me + mkr(subj) work + my lnr not + yet was-completed). 'Yes, but I'm also unable to leave my work which is still unfinished.'

Pinékpek mo may duég ko, agtá? (was-beaten by-you mkr(subj) carabao my, not + interrogative). 'You beat my carabao, didn't you?'

Sinmabí la si Pedro? Agní. 'Has Pedro arrived? Not yet.'

Anaphoric negative action-attributive phrases

An unfocused action-attributive phrase may form an anaphoric alternative to the corresponding phrase in the main sentence in much the same way as anaphoric negative comment phrases in equation-type emphatic verbal sentences. The

structure of the anaphoric negative phrase in non-active sentences is adversative or other conjunction + ag + alternative pronoun + appositive phrase.

Examples:

Gústo toy mangálaw may balolakí, bálet agtó may marikít (liked by-him + mkr(subj) will-play mkr(topic = appositive) bachelor, but not + by-her mkr (appositive) maiden). 'The young man wanted to play, but the young lady didn't.'

Binásak imáy libro ta agtó si Juan (was-read + by-me mkr(subj) book because not + by-him mkr Juan). 'I read the book because Juan didn't.'

Tépeten ko ra no agtó may polís (will-be-asked by-me they if not + by-him mkr(appositive) policeman). 'I'll ask them if the policeman doesn't.'

Focus

It was pointed out earlier in this discussion of verbal sentences that a special relationship exists between the verb and the phrase which forms the subject of the sentence; the latter was said to be 'in focus' to the verb, identified as subject by the marker associated with it or by the pronoun representing it, and identified as a particular kind of phrase (object, referent etc.) by the focus-marker affix in the verb stem.

In Pangasinan, there are six focus categories -- active, where the phrase representing the entity to which the action is attributed (if any) is in focus; passive, where the grammatical object (if any) is in focus (see notes on relationship of grammatical to logical categories, below, for an explanation of qualifications like 'if any' in these descriptions); referential, where the grammatical referent -- source, location, accessory, or entity on which the action is performed -- is in focus; instrumental where the focus of attention is on the means by or through which the action is accomplished; benefactive, where the beneficiary of the action is represented by the phrase in focus; and agentive, where the performer of the action is represented by the subject phrase, and the instigator by the action-attributive phrase. In the causative voice these relationships are somewhat complicated, and for this reason causative sentences are discussed separately below.

The affixed signalling focus relationships have been listed and illustrated in the section on verbs in Part II, and are again listed in Appendix III under the heading of the fous-types outlined above.

Focus transformations

Almost any sentence in one focus may be transformed into a different focus without changing its component phrases, except insofar as order in the sentence (the subject phrase often occurs immediately after the attributive phrase), the verbal affix, and the markers on the phrases affected by a change in status are concerned. Not all verbs, however, may appear with representatives of each type of focus affix --i.e. some verbs do not take passive affixes, others may not appear with referential affixes, etc. --and probably no verb is compatible with all verbal affixes. The verb taném 'plant' is, however, one of many verbs which may appear with some members of each of the major focus types, and is used in the examples below to illustrate the transformations a single sentence may undergo from one focus to another.

The basic components of the sample sentences are the verb (taném 'plant') plus various affixes, forming, the verb phrase, a phrase attributive of action (nen Pedro 'by Pedro'), an object phrase (na pónti 'the banana'), a referent phrase (dimád tanáman 'in the orchard'), an instrumental phrase (ed limá to 'with his hands'), a benefactive phrase (para kinen Célia 'for Celia'), and an agentive phrase (ed agí to '(through) his younger brother'. If all these appeared together, they would produce a sentence meaning, e.g. 'Pedro makes his younger brother plant the banana with his hands in the garden for Celia'. Such a sentence is, however, no more elegant in Pangasinan than it is in English, and usually only three or four such components will appear in any given sentence at the same time. The examples which follow, therefore, incorporate only as many of these phrases into each sentence as is possible without producing unnatural or forced sequences, while at the same time illustrating each in several situations in different sentences.

(1) Active -- Mantánem si Pedro na pónti dimád tanámam pára kinen Celia. 'Pedro will plant the banana in the orchard for Celia'.

man-tánem

si Pedro

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active-unreal + 'plant'		subject/action attr.
<u>na pónti</u>	<u>dimád tanáman</u>	<u>pára kinen Célia</u>
object	referent	beneficiary

(2) Passive -- Intaném nen Pedro may pónti ed limá to. 'Pedro will plant the banana with his hands'.

<u>i-taném</u>	<u>nen Pedro</u>	<u>may pónti</u>
passive-unreal	attributive	subject
<u>ed limá to</u>		
instrument		

(3) Referent focus -- Si Pedro tanemán toy pónti imáy tanáman para kinen Célia. 'Pedro will plant the banana in the garden for Celia'.

<u>si Pedro</u>	<u>tanem-án</u>	
apposed action-attr	referential-unreal	
<u>to</u>	<u>-y pónti</u>	<u>imáy tanáman</u>
attributive(pornoun)	object	subject
<u>para kinen Célia</u>		
beneficiary		

(4) Instrumental focus -- Pantaném nen Pedro imáy limá to ed sáray pónti. 'Pedro will plant the banana with his hands' (note the shift of the object phrase to referential status).

<u>pan-taném</u>	<u>nen Pedro</u>	<u>imáy limá to</u>
instrumental-unreal	attributive	subject
<u>ed sáray pónti</u>		
referent(goal)		

(5) Benefactive focus -- Itanemán nen Pedro si Célia na pónti dimád tanáman. 'Pedro will plant the banana in the garden for Celia'.

<u>i-tanem-an</u>	<u>nen Pedro</u>	<u>si Ce'lia</u>
benefactive-unreal	attributive	subject
<u>na pónti</u>	<u>dimád tanáman</u>	
object	referent	

(6) Agent focus -- pantánemen nen Juan may agí to na pónti para kinen Celia. 'John will have his younger brother plant the banana for Celia'.

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<u>pan-tánem-en</u>	<u>nen Juan</u>	<u>may agí to</u>
agentive-unreal	attributive	subject
<u>na pónti</u>	<u>pára kinen Célia</u>	
object	beneficiary	

(7) Active causative -- Manpataném si Juan na pónti ed agí to. 'John will cause his younger brother to plant the banana'.

<u>man-pa-taném</u>	<u>si Juan</u>	<u>na pónti</u>
active-unreal + causative	subject	object
<u>ed agí to</u>		
agent		

Relationship of grammatical to logical categories;

changes in status of focused and unfocused phrases.

It should be clearly noted that there is a considerable degree of overlap between grammatical categories when they are compared with logical categories (real or imagined) abstracted from the analysis of a real situation. Thus it may be asserted that when an action is performed by someone on a given goal, we have two logical categories -actor and goal -involved in the action. Grammatically, these two categories are often represented in Pangasinan by action-attributive and object phrases respectively. This is by no means always the case, however, at least on the surface.

Take for example the English sentences 'I hit the carabao' and 'I cleaned the floor'. Both seem to involve an actor, an action, and a goal, and can in fact be represented in Pangasinan by a verb (action), action-attributive phrase (actor) and object phrase (goal) in an active sentence -- Nanpékpek ak na duég, Nanlínis ak na dátal. However, if one wishes to shift the attention from the actor to the recipient of the action, the appropriate transformations are active to passive in the case of the first sentence -- pinékpek ko may duég, but active to referential in the case of the second - Linínisán koy dátal. When the goal of the action becomes the subject of a sentence it seems to be regarded as that on which the action is performed in the case of verbs like línis, and that to which the action is done where verbs like pékpek are concerned. Other verbs which follow the pattern of línis are asíngger 'approach', lukás 'open', pínta 'paint', kapút 'shut', panís 'sweep', lampáso 'scrub'.

Normally, or ideally, there is a progression of focus changes like those illustrated in the set of examples with taném, above, where each phrase maintains the same character when not in focus --i.e. the action-attributive phrase becomes the subject of an active sentence, and appears as an attributive phrase elsewhere; the object of an active sentence becomes the subject of a referential focus sentence, and is marked as referent elsewhere, and so on. While this is a general rule, there is a considerable amount of overlap between the categories of object and referent in relationship to focus transformations with many verbs, and even within the same focus the distinction is sometimes unclear, as has been illustrated above in relation to shift of subject in equation-type emphatic verbal sentences.

An example of what was an object phrase everywhere else suddenly being marked as a referent is found in the instrumental-focus transformation (4) in the sentences with taném above. An example of a similar alternation without any change in focus in the verb itself may be seen in the sentences siák so angán na mansáñas. 'I ate the apple', and Sámay manók so angán ed mansáhas. 'The chicken ate the apple', -- but in this case with a small but relevant difference --the chicken's eating is more eating at the apple rather than consuming it directly. However, both sentences would become simple passives with the referent and object phrases treated alike if it were desired to shift attention from the eater to the eaten: Mansáñas so kinán to may manók. 'The apple was eaten by the chicken'. Mansáñas so kinán ko. 'The apple was eaten by me'.

In the case of personal nouns or pronominal elements appearing as unfocused objects, the shift from object to referent as far as formal markings go is automatic -- compare Man-gibangát si Juan na ogáw. 'John will teach the boy'. Man-gibangát si Juan ed siák. 'John will teach me'. Mangibangát si Juan kinen Maria. 'John will teach Maria'. This may be interpreted as indicating that referential markers are also personal object markers, or that, in view of the overlapping of referent and object as grammatical categories for the 'logical' category of goal, phrases containing personal or pronominal nuclei are simply treated as referents rather than objects when they appear as logical goals in non-passive sentences.

The topic of an instrument-focus sentence is also difficult to determine by means of a prior assumption. With verbs like taném it may be any body-part used in the action, but most

verbs with the sense 'to kick' will rarely if ever be found with salí 'foot' as focused instrument, for the simple reason that this information is redundant. Kicking is of its nature done with feet. A verb like alá 'get' may have a more conventional 'instrument' as the topic of an instrument focus sentence. Banuít so inpangalá toy sirá. 'A fishhook is what he caught the fish with'. The instrument with a verb like kaláb 'climb' is more like an agent: Pangaláb nen Pedro may lakí ed nióg. 'Pedro will make the boy climb the coconut' (note also the goal (nióg) as referent in this last sentence).

It is therefore wise to avoid assuming that a phrase in a given category in one sentence will automatically reappear in the same grammatical category if the focus of the verb is shifted. It is also necessary to learn for each of the verbs concerned what kinds of phrases can appear in certain focus transformations, especially as subjects of passive, referential and instrumental sentences, where what might be expected from the point of view of a logician or a speaker of another language does not always happen in practice in actual speech.

Transitivity, actors, objects and goals

In the brief note on transitivity in relation to the characteristics of verbs (Part II, above), it was stated that transitivity denotes the involvement of an object or goal of the action, and that passive affixes are all explicitly transitive. This, of course, is somewhat oversimplifying matters, and it is now possible to give a more accurate statement of the matter. Transitivity involves the movement of the action from an actor to a goal, both of which are logical or situational, rather than grammatical categories, and passive affixes are explicitly transitive only when the verb concerned is followed by an explicitly stated subject.

Thus it is possible to have active sentences with no actor, and passive sentences with no goal, as well as goals which are not objects and objects which are not goals. For this reason, the terms 'actor focus' and 'object focus' or 'goal focus' have been deliberately avoided in this grammar, although they are used by some writers in describing Philippine languages. In an active sentence, the grammatical object is almost always also a logical goal, and a stated subject an actor. When this same object is the subject of a passive or referent-focus sentence, the relationship of transitivity remains. Of the active affixes, on- appears most frequently in intransitive constructions, sometimes

with an actor but no object, sometimes with neither actor nor object. Even a stated subject with verbs inflected with on- (or the past form -inm-) may be very doubtfully actor-like in nature, although grammatically it is the entity to which the action is attributed (see examples below). Of the passive affixes, i- (past form in-) appears with many verbs of motion etc. to form goal-less passives (the active counterparts are inflected with on-, -inm-). Instrumental focus verbs, especially in non-emphatic constructions, generally require the marking of the goal as referent even where it is marked as object in other focus transformations of the same sentence.

Examples:

Onorán. 'It will rain'. (active verb intransitive)

Onsabí irá. 'They will arrive'. (active verb + subject = actor, intransitive).

Oninóm ak na danúm. 'I will drink some water'. (Active verb + subject = actor + object = goal, transitive.)

Onbáleg kamí ed Manila. 'We will return to Manila'. (Active verb + subject = ? actor + referent, intransitive.)

Onbungá may kiéw. 'The tree will bear fruit'. (Active verb + subject (is the tree an actor?), intransitive.)

(Ilaloán mi so) isabí da. 'We will be expecting them to arrive' (passive verb + attributive phrase (actor), intransitive).

(Sanó Sábado so) isipót to. 'She will go (on Saturday)' (passive verb + attributive phrase (actor), intransitive).

Gústok so manbílay ya andokéy. 'I want to live long' (passive verb + attributive phrase (actor) + subject (focused object, not goal), intransitive).

Lampásaoan toy dátal. 'He will scrub the floor' (referent-focus verb + attributive phrase (actor) + subject (referent/goal), transitive).

Itér da may líbro. 'They'll give me the book' (passive verb + attributive phrase (actor) + subject (goal), transitive).

Initdán da kamí na líbro. 'They gave us the book'. (Benefactive verb + attributive phrase (actor) + object (goal), transitive.)

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Manáyam kamí ed Ibále. 'We will live in Manila' (active verb + subject (actor) + referent (not goal), intransitive).

Inpangalá tayó may bislák ed apáyas. 'We got the papayas with the stick' (instrumental focus verb + attributive phrase (actor) + subject (instrumental) + referent (goal), transitive).

Sets of focus affixes

Although there is no one-to-one relationship between affixes in the various focus transformations, there are a number of 'sets' of verbal and nominalizing affixes which can be predicted if it is known which active indicative affix is associated with the verb concerned. These sets are listed below. It should be remembered, however, that other affixes not in the list may also occur with verb stems associated with the members of any given set. The benefactive affixes i- ... -an (incomplete), in- ... -an (complete), and agentive affixes pan- ... -en, pinan-, are common to all sets.

<u>Focus</u>	<u>Set I</u>	<u>Set II</u>
Active	<u>on-</u> <u>-inm-</u>	<u>man-</u> <u>nan-</u>
Passive	<u>i-</u> <u>in-</u>	<u>i-, -en</u> <u>in-, -in-</u>
Referential (general)		<u>-an</u> <u>-in ... - an</u>
Referential (locationa)		<u>pan- ... - an</u> <u>inpan- ... -an</u>
Instrumental		<u>pan-</u> <u>inpan-</u>
Nominalizing affixes	<u>manag-</u> <u>panag-</u>	<u>manag-</u> <u>panag-</u>
Set IV		Set III
<u>maN-</u> <u>aN-</u> <u>i-, -en</u> <u>in-, -in-</u> <u>-an</u> <u>-in- ... -an</u> <u>paN- ... -an</u> <u>inpaN- ... -an</u> <u>paN-</u> <u>inpan-</u>		<u>mangi-</u> <u>angi-</u> <u>i-</u> <u>in-</u> <u>mangi- ... -an</u> <u>angi- ... -an</u> <u>pangi- ... -an</u> <u>inpangi- ... -an</u> <u>panaN-</u> <u>inpangi-</u>

manaN-
pangi-

manangi-
panangi-

Focus of verbs used in 'infinitive' sense

There is no category of affix in Pangasinan which approximates the English infinitive particle 'to' (e.g. in 'to walk', 'to cook' etc.) and the infinitive affixes of Spanish, Latin, Greek, and other Indo-European languages. Instead, the kind of meaning expressed in English by an infinitive verb is expressed in Pangasinan by a verb inflected for unreal aspect, and usually active, passive or instrumental focus, and appearing as a subordinate sentence either linked to the verb to which it relates. The affix pan- may also appear with verb stems independent of other verbs, with the sense 'the time to --', or 'instrument to --with'.

Examples:

Gabáy kon lútoen (wanted by-me + lnk will-be-cooked). 'I want to cook it' (definite goal).

Gabáy kon manlúto (wanted by-me + lnk will-cook). 'I want to cook' (indefinite goal).

Labáy to mangán na púto (wanted by-him + lnk will-eat mkr(obj) rice-cake). 'He wants to eat the rice cake'.

Labáy to néngnengen may retráto (wanted by-him + lnk will-be-seen mkr(subj) picture). 'He wants to see the picture'.

Gabáy dan manlampáso ka na dátal (wanted by-them + lnk will-scrub you mkr(obj) floor). 'They want you to scrub the floor'.

Iláloán mi so isabí yo (will-be-expected by-us mkr(sub/ref-erent) will-be-arrived by-you). 'We'll be expecting you to arrive'.

Gústok so oninóm (liked + by-me mkr(subject/ object) will-drink). 'I'd like to drink'.

Agtó gústó so milában ed sika (not + by-him liked mkr(subject/object) will-mutually-fight mkr(ref) you). 'He doesn't want to fight with you'.

Nátan so maóng a pantípon na belás (now mkr(topic) good lnk (time)-to-gather mkr(obj) rice). 'Now is a good time to gather the rice'.

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Makapataktakót so lábin panákar ed takél (very-dangerous mkr(topic) night + lnk (time)-to-walk mkr(ref) forest). 'It's very dangerous to walk in the forest at night'.

Alám yay lápis ko ta sikatóy pansúlat mo (be-taken + by-you this pencil my because it + mkr (topic) will-be-written-with by-you). 'Take this pencil so you can write with it' (i.e. 'and use it to write with').

Focus relationships between questions and replies, and in verb sequences

When several sentences occur in sequence, whether as self-contained units in a single utterance, or in a relationship of main and subordinate clauses, there is no requirement that the verbs concerned should be inflected for the same focus, or for different focuses. The focus chosen depends partly upon what element in each sentence the speaker wishes to make the center of attention, and partly upon which focus inflections are appropriate in the given circumstances (it might not be a good choice, for example, to use a passive verb to indicate an indefinite goal).

There is somewhat less freedom of choice, however, in the relationship between certain questions and the form of an appropriate reply when both question and reply involve verbal sentences. Generally speaking, a reply which does not involve an uninflected passive verb (e.g. gabáy 'liked') is likely to be active in form, even when the question was phrased with a passive or other non-active focus marked in the verb. Certain questions involving interrogative pro-phrases however seem to demand a specific structure in the reply. Some of the most commonly encountered of these question types are illustrated below.

(1) Question: inér + so + locative-referential verb + attributive phrase (+ object phrase).

Answer: Active verb + subject (= attributive phrase) (+ object phrase) + locative phrase.

E.g. Inér so nangawaán moy kánen? Nangawá ak na kánen dimád kosína. (Where mkr(topic) was-made-at by-you + mkr(obj) food? Did-make I mkr(obj) food there + at kitchen). 'Where did you prepare the food? I prepared the food in the kitchen'. (An abbreviated reply -- Dimád kosína 'In the kitchen',

would, of course, be an acceptable alternative to the full sentence. It is the function of the examples, however, to show what form a full sentence answer should take where one is given); Inér so panánapán mo -- Mananáp ak ed Ibále (where mkr(topic) will-be-worked-at by-you --will-work I mkr(ref) Manila). 'Where will you be making your living? I'll be working in Manila'.

(2) Question: Kapigán + so + passive or instrumental (= time) focus verb + attributive phrase (+ object phrase).

Answer: active verb + subject (= attributive phrase) (+ object phrase) + time phrase.

E.g. Kapigán so pansúlat day balíta? Mansúlat irá na balíta no kabuasan. (When mkr(topic) will-be-written by-them + mkr(obj) report? Will-write they mkr(obj) report time-particle(future) morning). 'When will they be writing the report? They'll write the report in the morning'. Kapigáy insabím? Sinmabí ak nen símbay ngárem (When + mkr(topic) was-arrived + by-you? Did-arrive I time-particle(past) Sunday + lnk afternoon).

(3) Question: Pigá (+ -ra) + so + passive verbs + attributive phrase.

Answer: Active verb + subject (= attributive phrase) + object.

E.g. Pigáray sinalíw yo? Analíw ak na duára. (How many-individual + mkr(topic) were-bought by-you? --Did-buy I mkr(obj) two-individual). 'How many did you buy? --I bought two'.

(4) Question: San- + pigá + so + passive or instrumental focus verb + attributive phrase (+ ed sakéy).

Answer: referent-focus verb potential aspect + attributive phrase + distributive numeral or money noun (i.e. san- + numeral, or maN- + money noun).

E.g. Sampipígay inpanbáyar yod sakéy? Abayarán mi masíno. (How-much-each + mkr (topic) was -paid-with by-you + mkr(ref) one? Was-able-to-be-paid by-us peso-each). 'How much did you pay for each one? We paid a peso each'.

(5) Question: Antó + so + instrumental focus verb + attributive phrase + object.

E.g. Antóy inpangán moy tinápay? Mantikílya so inpangán koy tinápay. (What + mkr(topic) was-eaten-with by-you + mkr(obj) bread? Butter mkr(topic) was-eaten-with by-me + mkr(obj) bread.) 'What did you eat your bread with? I ate my bread with butter'. (i.e. 'I used butter for eating with my bread').

Imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are of two kinds; those with verbs marked for imperative mood by absence of other affixation, and those phrased as declarative sentences (i.e. with verbs marked for moods other than imperative). In both cases, the verbs may be either active or passive in focus; declarative imperatives may also be marked for benefactive and referent focus. Negative imperative sentences are always declarative. See the section on negation of imperative sentences above for examples.

Modal imperatives

Modal imperatives have the structure unaffixed verb-stem + second person pronoun (+ object). By unaffixed verb stem is meant a verb stem free of affixes with modal implications. The pronoun will be a subject pronoun if the verb stem has active force, and an attributive pronoun when the verb has passive force; in the latter case the object phrase will be marked as subject of the sentence.

Active modal imperatives are generally intransitive, while transitivity is generally implicit in modal imperatives with passive force.

Commonly encountered active modal imperative forms are alagár 'wait', ogíp 'sleep', loób 'come in', síngger 'approach', simpét 'go home', loksó 'jump', alagéy 'stand', la 'go, come', sayáw 'dance'.

Commonly encountered passive modal imperatives are pét 'ask', táwag 'call', pasiár 'pick up on the way', 'stop by for', dengél 'listen to', pilí 'pick', alá 'get', nengnéng 'look at', sabí (in a special sense --see example and note below) 'arrive expectedly'. Verbs affixed only for causative voice are also

commonly used as passive imperatives, e.g. pakán (cause-to-eat) 'feed', painóm (cause-to drink) 'give (something) to drink', pasiróm (cause-to-shelter) 'shade, shelter'.

Examples:

Táwag mo irá (be-called by-you they). 'Call them'.

Nengnéng yo so inkagawá to (be-looked-at by-you mkr(subj) what-was-done by-him). 'Look at what he's done'.

Pilím so gústom. 'Choose what you like'.

Loób kayó (come-in you). 'Come inside'.

Alagár ka diá. 'Wait here'.

La ka la (go you already). 'Go now'.

Ogíp ka la (sleep you already). 'Go to sleep now'.

Táwag ka báí ed sikará (call you 'grandmother' to her). 'Call her 'grandmother' (cf. transitive use of táwag in the first example above).

Sabím ira (arrived-expectedly + by-you they). 'You should be there; they're expecting you to arrive'. (This quasi-imperative sentence has both imperative and declarative connotations, as indicated by the literal translation and the paraphrase following it.)

Declarative imperatives

Imperative sentences cast in the form of passive declarative sentences (with i- or -en affixed to the verb stem) are common when an object or goal is definitely indicated, and in giving instructions regarding the performance of particular tasks, again with a definite goal for the action. Polite requests to eat, come, go, etc. are likely to be phrased as active declarative sentences. Where manner is involved, a verb may be formed from an adjective root suffixed for referent focus with -an, with an active sentence constituting the subject of the verb so formed. The declarative imperative form of some transitive verbs is also formed with -an, the subject being the goal of the action. When a beneficiary is directly involved, requests are usually made in the form of benefactive focus sentences. In addition to second person pronouns the inclusive pronouns ti, ití, ta, tayó, itá, itayó may also appear in non-modal imperative sentences.

Some verb stems forming declarative imperatives with the passive prefix *i-* are bagá 'invite, ask', itér 'give', sáli 'try', lukás 'close', sará 'shut', sípor 'start with', sínger 'tie', lotó 'cook (direct command)', parongó 'serve', talém 'soak', banták 'throw', átol 'keep'.

The passive affix *-an* is associated with verb stems like the following in imperative sentences: pilí 'choose, select', pitpít 'pound' gawá 'do, make' awít 'carry, take' táwag 'summon', alagar 'wait for', pakán 'feed' (*pa-* 'causative' + kan 'eat'), kábat 'meet', amés 'bathe', salíw 'buy', alá 'get', kan 'eat', bása 'read', salíta 'say', tepét 'ask', lotó 'cook' (general instruction).

Referent focus declarative imperatives are formed from stems like deén 'be quiet', kálna 'be slow', ganó 'be quick', linís 'clean', punás 'wipe', asín 'salt'.

Examples:

Isínger mo may asóm (will-be-tied by-you mkr (subj) dog + your).
'Tie up your dog'.

Ilukás mo pay bentána (will-be-closed by-you please + mkr(subj) window). 'Please close the window'.

Itér moy limá (will-be-given by-you + mkr (subj) five). 'Give [me] five'.

Pítpiten ya maóng so agát insán italém ed toká (will-be-pounded lnk good mkr(subj) ginger then will-be-soaked in vinegar). 'Pound the ginger well and then soak it in vinegar'.

Sáliwen moy bayáwas (will-be-bought by-you + Mkr(subj) guava). 'Buy guavas'.

Ámesen mo may ogáw (will-be-bathed by-you mkr (subj) child). 'Bathe the child'.

Alagarén mo si Pedro (will-be-awaited by-you mkr(subj) Pedro). 'Wait for Pedro'.

Tépeten mod sikará (will-be-asked by-you + mkr (ref) them). 'Ask them'.

Isípor mon agéebaén may ogáw (be-done-from-the beginning by-you + lnk not + being-carried mkr (subj) child). 'Get the child used to not being carried right from the start'.

Áwiten moy aróm. 'Take some'.

Oniróng ka pan mareén (will-sit you please + lnk quiet).
'Please sit quietly'.

Mangán ka pay daisét (will-eat you please + mkr (obj) little).
'please eat a little'.

Ónla itíla! (will-go we-already). 'Let's go!'

Kalnaan mo pay mansára na puérta (be-done-slowly by-you please + mkr(subj) will-close mkr(obj) door). 'Please close the door slowly'.

Linísay sirá insán asínan (will-be-cleaned + mkr(subj) fish then will-be-salted). 'Clean the fish then salt it'.

Manalíw kila anggáno duára labát (will-buy you already even-if two-individual only). 'Just buy two!'

Itdán mo kamí duáran berbér na agáyep (will-be-given-for by-you we + mkr(obj) two-individual bundle of string-beans). 'Give us two bundles of string beans'.

Ilaán yo ak na sakéy ya gátang ya belás (will-be-gotten-for by-you I mkr(obj) one lnk ganta lnk rice). 'Get me one ganta of rice'.

Exercises --Direct Voice Verbal Sentences

The exercises which follow consist of translations into and from Pangasinan, using a variety of more frequently encountered verbal affixes to illustrate different focus and aspectual possibilities. Keys to the exercises are provided in Appendix II; these can also be used as additional exercises, with the answers supplied by the corresponding material below.

A list of appropriate verb stems is supplied with each English-Pangasinan section of the exercise, and the sentences in this section are designed to appear as simple (unemphatic) verbal sentences in translation, except for those marked (EM) -- non-equational emphatic, and (Eq) equation-type emphatic. Solutions other than those given here may also be correct in many cases. A check with a native speaker should enable the puzzled reader to decide on the validity of such alternatives.

Active sentences

Exercise I - Verbal affixes on- (i[ncomplete]), -inm- (c[omplete]), neutral transitivity, indicative mood.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. The iron is getting hot (petáñg).
2. The children returned (pawíl) to their homes.
3. Luisa will ask (kérew) her father for some money (= ask some money from her father).
4. The old man is already working (kímey).
5. The man who collects for the light bill came here (la).

Translate into English.

1. Tinmómbok imáy ogáw ed iná to.
2. Ontalinéñg kamí ed táwag na totoón maírap.
3. Onlilínawa so ogáw ya kapanianák.
4. Agá sinmabí may pamepésak mi.
5. Binmálet irá so matá nen marikít.

Exercise II - man- (i), nan- (c), implicit transitivity, intensive mood.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. You will read (bása) the story in front of the class.
2. I want them to play (galáw) at our house.
3. Julian took a bath (amés) in the river.
4. Mother washed (pesák) our dirty clothing.
5. Juanita and Luz will water (salóg) the plant (Eq).

Translate into English.

1. Onla tayó ya mannéñgneñg na TV kindí Nena.
2. Sikayó so mansnóp na pláto tan báso.
3. Mantópe si Atchí na inpesak.
4. Maplés ya nanbisikléta si Raúl.
5. Agni manáames may marikít nen sinmabí may balolakí.

Exercise III - maN- (i), aN- (c), implicit transitivity.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Try bargaining for (táwal) the handbag in Nana Maria's (lot of] merchandise.

2. I got (alá) a dress as mother's Christmas present.
3. He'll catch (erél), our chicken.
4. Amparo snatched (sámsam) bread from one child.
5. Grandmother Felismg's dog bites (kétket).

Translate into English.

1. Ánták manísia ka la ed áteñg mo nátan.
2. Labálabáy toy mañgán na kánen na Filipínas.
3. Añganób may marikít na ambaliñgit ya rósas.
4. Añgalát so báleg ya olég na too.
5. Maniím ak na ogáw ya mamórbor na prutas.

Exercise IV - mañgi (i), añgi- (c), explicit transitivity.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. It was a bulldozer that pushed (tulák) the soil (Eq).
2. Put the plate on (tapéw) the table.
3. Fe has tied up (siñgér) three chickens.)
4. Juan is putting the post in a hole (kotkót).
5. I'll return (pawíl) the book to the closet.

Translate into English.

1. Siopá so mañgipesák ed sámay kawés do?
2. Mañgitaném si Juan na pónti dimád tanáman tayo.
3. Añgitulór ak na babóy diá ta inkianák mo.
4. Añgitilák si Juan na lápis ed lamisaán.
5. Añgibangát si Raúl kinen Cora, bálet agto labáy ya manáral.

Exercise V - aka- (c), neutral transitivity, involuntary mode.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Grandmother fell asleep (ogíp) to the music from the radio.
2. A big rat made (gawá) a hole in the wall (Eq).
3. I didn't see the wound-up (potípot) ropie.
4. Grandfather's hat is hanging (sabít) on the post.
5. My older sister sewed (daít) me three dresses (Eq).

Translate into English.

1. Si Joe akakaláwit na sakéy ya lañgóchen kalamansí.
2. Akakétket na pokél, kanián apotér so ñgipén to.

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3. Agnabálang so pányok ta akasúlat so ñgarán do.
4. Añggapó la may príso ta akabatík.
5. Dakél so kuárta nen baím ya akasbkíb ed sapéy to.

Exercise VI - *mi-* (i), *aki-* (c), reciprocal.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. We attended a baptism (*binyág*) in Bayambang yesterday.
2. I like dancing (*baíli*) with him.
3. We'll greet (*túyaw*) them all.
4. I cooked (*lotó*) at their place because we ran out of fuel.
5. I exchanged (*salát*) a book with Susie.

Translate into English.

1. Mineñgneñg kamí pa ed TV yo, báí?
2. Akikási irá di nánay a paibaán ak kinen Elisa ya onlá ed Dagupan.
3. Agto labáy so mibánsag ed mañgán.
4. Antakót ak a onsémpet ta lábi la kanián akiogíp ak ed abóñg da.
5. Agmipára so kaatagéy nen José kinen Pedro.

Exercise VII *mi- ... -a* (i), *aki- ... -an* (c), reciprocal, emphatic.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I'd like to exchange letters (*súlat*) with you when you're in America.
2. He didn't want to hurt (*sugát*) with his sharp bolo.
3. I don't want to touch (*diwít*) him!
4. Your dog bit (*kétket*) me.
5. Make (*gawá*) a statement with Mrs. Cruz.

Translate into English.

1. Milaktipán so liknaán mo ed liknaán ko.
2. Ambaíñg ya miarapán si Susan ed siák.
3. Akisalatan ak na sélyo ed sikató.
4. Say mibandoán so antá ton pitoñgtóñg.
5. Akipirdonaán si Juan kinen Pedring.

Exercise VIII *maka-* (c) potential.

Translate into Pangasinan.

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1. Luisa won't be able to arrive (sabí) because its already night.
2. I can rest (ináwa) now that you're all here.
3. The child still cannot walk (stand) (alagéy).
4. He's the one who can help (tólpñg) his mother (Eq).
5. The old man cannot open his eyes (limatá).

Translate into English.

1. Makakaláb kasí si Jose na nióg?
2. Makaneñgneñg ka na marakép ya síne ed Manila.
3. Aga makabalíw ed ílog ta aralém so danúm.
4. Agak makapúpu na kiéw ta epél so baráñg ko.
5. Aga makasúlat so kawanán ya limá to.

Exercise IX *maka-* + *pi-* (c), potential, reciprocal.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I can't attend the funeral (send (tolór) the dead) tomorrow because I'm going somewhere.
2. Linda will surely be able to accompany (olóp) you on Monday.
3. Father would like to be able to talk (toñgtóñg) with Mama Lucio (Eq.).
4. Drop by our house so you can also see (neñgneñg) Luz.
5. I'm the only one who can go to Cora's wedding (bánsal) in Manila.

Translate into English.

1. Makapisayáw ka kinen Linda no miolóp ka ed sikamí ya ónla ed baile.
2. Makapideñgel kayó na stéreo de Atchí Ción no isabí da la.
3. Onlá ak ed abóñg di kúya Ben pián makapikerew ak na péchay diá.
4. Manpalábi itayó dimán pián makapipandém tayó.
5. Masakbáy kan onsabí nabuás pián makapirásal ka met.

Exercise X *makaka-* (i), potential.

Translate into Pangasinan

1. I feel like sitting (iróng) on the bench.
2. He says he feels like drinking (inóm) wine again.
3. Susie is inclined to bathe (amés) in the sea.

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4. It was threatening rain (orán) when I went there yesterday.
5. Susie feels homesick (sempét) whenever she thinks of you.

Translate into English.

1. Makakadeláp no onóran na maksíl diád Alcala.
2. Makakabórbor ak na bongáy pántol.
3. Makakaokolán lay orán may maní ya intaném ed álog.
4. Makakasirá konó si Nena na áltey na báka.
5. Makakaogíp ak ed samít na tógtog.

Exercise XI magsi- (i), nagsi- (c), distributive.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Father says that his brothers and sisters each planned (nónot) their own lives.
2. I would like each one of us to build (gawá) his own house.
3. You should prepare everything (pará) you're bringing so that nothing will be left behind.
4. Every farmer works (kímeý) on the land when it's the planting season (Eq.).
5. Each should be mindful (asikáso) of the child she's taking care of when we're on the beach.

Translate into English.

1. Makalákal irán sanaági ta nagsipesák na kawés da.
2. Abilín iráy qgógaw a nagsilínis na irongán da.
3. Nagsialá kayóy labáy yon kánen ed lamisáan.
4. Inbagá di Mama Inciong ya nagsibalón na kánen to ed píknik.
5. Nagsipilí na labáy ton sáliwen pián maganó tayó.

Passive affixes

Exercise XII -en (i), -in- (c), explicit transitivity.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. He wants to cut down (tóm̃ba) the bamboo.
2. I killed (patéy) the chicken yesterday.
3. I don't know how to fix (gawá) the broken radio.
4. They've selected (pilí) the big room to live in (Eq.).

5. They've decided to organize (tógyop) their group.

Translate into English.

1. Íomen mon amín tay gátas mo.
2. Giníliñg to na pínompíno may belás.
3. Labáy kon kánen imáy mansánas ed tapéw na lamisáan.
4. Agto amtán sámpaten imáy bóla.
5. Agmo ra tatáwagen.

Exercise XIII i- (i), in- (c), intentive.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. They pushed (tulák) the jeep because it wouldn't start.
2. I struck (sigbat) the big bolo against a stone.
3. Mother will wash (pesák) my new dress.
4. They will leave John behind (tilák) at our house.
5. Did you return (pawíl) the book to where you got it from?

Translate into English.

1. Ingáton da may; salmíñg ya makálkalná ed dátal.
2. Ibulañg nen kúyak imáy Texas ya manók to.
3. Isalát ko na babáleg imáy bangá.
4. Ikálbo yon amín so danúm to imáy láta.
5. Inpunás to may panyók ed lópa to.

Exercise XIV ni- (c), intentive, purposive, potential.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. He did not return (pawíl) the cover of the can immediately.
2. The child has been made used (pásal) to praying everyday.
3. Linda could be counted (biláng) a good friend.
4. I didn't know my handkerchief was exchanged (salát) with him.
5. There is still some rice which you should have been able to sell (láko).

Translate into English.

1. Siopáy nílám?
2. Nitaném kasí so sañgá na kawayán?
3. Nitúlak nen Juan may báleg ya kahón.
4. Nibañgát irán maóñg dimád eskuelaán.

5. Nínonot mi ya wadiá ka.

Exercise XV na- (i), a- (c), potential.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. The box was turned upside down (pigár) by the force of the wind.
2. Pedro can tie (siñgér) the pig.
3. She doesn't want to be left behind (tilák).
4. What you wanted done (gawá) has all been finished (sómpal).
5. I saw (neñgnéñg) you.

Translate into English.

1. Aguyór na ogáw may lobír.
2. Apasál min amín so kasió ed lenég na sakéy símba.
3. Nadeláp ya amín so pagéy mi.
4. Apotér na awel so pónti ya intaném ko nen sábado.
5. Natómba may bayáwas no maksíl so dagém.

Exercise XVI na- (i), na- (+ stress shift or vowel deletion (c)), involuntary.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I received (áwat) your letter yesterday.
2. Be careful with these glasses so none will be broken (pisít).
3. I saw (neñgnéñg) that the tree had fallen yesterday afternoon.
4. Elisa broke (pisít) three of my sister's glasses.
5. My pig is well satisfied (pesél), so he's lying down already.

Translate into English.

1. Agtó naamtaan ya nákna to may martínes ed sámay palpáltog.
2. Naáwat mo komón a maganó so súlat to.
3. Agko amtá ya naawít ko manáya may swíter nen Belen.
4. Agni napesél so babóy mo.
5. Agá milában ed siká no nakéna may kandíñg.

Exercise XVII *pan-* (i), *inpan-* (c), *paN-* (i), *inpaN-*(c), *pañgi-* (i), *inpañgi-* (c), subject = time phrase.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I'll send (pawít) my letter to you tomorrow (Eq.)
2. Later on we'll cook (lutó) the adobo which we'll take to the picnic (Eq.).
3. Today is the right time to gather in (pantípon) the rice (Eq).
4. Mother will make (gawá) cakes tomorrow (Eq.).
5. When will you eat (kan) your pig (Eq.)?

Translate into English.

1. Makapataktakót so lábin panákar ed takél.
2. Sanén Sábado so panlúto di atchí na leche flan.
3. Karomán so inpañgipawít koy kuárta ed apók.
4. Kapigán so pañgalám na mángga?
5. Kalabián so inpañgilutó to na menúdon intolór mi ed kindí Láki Mariáno.

Referent focus affixes

Exercise XVIII *-an* (i), *-in-* ... *-an* (c), indicative.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. They will wash (orás) all the plates (link adjective to verb).
2. We helped (tóloñg) him to study in Manila.
3. They applauded (típak) the singer roundly.
4. Pour (kálbo) some hot water over the plates, glasses and spoons.
5. He'll release (bolós) some Tilapia in the well in the field.

Translate into English.

1. Tolorán mo na sirá si Awiñg.
2. Ilaloán da so isabí yo.
3. Ámay dalikán so lutoáy sirá.
4. Dakél tay bagaán mo?
5. Deenán mo pay mañgán na sópas!

Exercise XIX pan- ... -an (i), nan- ... -an (c), location, source.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. From whom did you enquire about (tepét) Pedro's whereabouts (Eq.)?
2. We slice (gergér) the meat on the chopping board (Eq.).
3. The rice was ladled (abló) onto the big plate (Eq.).
4. Where will she hang (sabít) her clothes (Eq.)?
5. You will catch (kálap) many fish in the river (Eq.).

Translate into English.

1. Say bigaó so pantáepan na belás.
2. Makápoy ya panlóreyan so akoláw.
3. Panlákoan nen Pedro na rádio dimád tindáan.
4. Inér so panánapán mo?
5. Diád garíta nen atchím so nansaliwán koy tópig dimád Bugallon.

Exercise XX paN- ... -an (i), aN- ... -an (c) location, source.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. They buy (salíw) the bread in Rosales, (Eq.).
2. Do you know where (how) to follow (tómbok) your father (Eq.)?
3. I'm the one they asked (tepét) what she said (Eq.).
4. From whom shall I ask for (keréw) banana leaves (Eq.).
5. He picked kalamansi with a kalawit (kaláwit) in your garden (Eq.).

Translate into English.

1. Si Linda so panisiaán tayo ta anéngneñg to.
2. Agkó antá no inér so pañgalaán koy kuárta.
3. Say talágdanán so aňgalipán koy sibúyas.
4. Diád takláy so paňgarotán to ed agím.
5. Inér so paňganán nen Pedro?

Exercise XXI pañgi- ... -an (i), aňgi- ... -an (c), location, source.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. He's the one I exchanged (salát) books with (Eq.).

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2. Vinegar is what you should cook (lotó) the fish in (Eq.).
3. I planted (taném) the flowers in your flower pot (Eq.).
4. He put the book back (pawíl) in the closet (Eq.).
5. They rushed (batík) the child who had been run over to the hospital.

Translate into English.

1. Dimád panínan so pañginopán mo na sirá.
2. Agko antá so pañgitanemán to may pónti.
3. Inér so añgisulatán yo may pakábat?
4. Si atchí so añgibagáan koy panbáyar do ed eskuelaán.
5. Dínay pañgipasakán nen kúyam may tábla?

Exercise XXII na- ... -an (i), a- ... -an (c), potential.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I couldn't put up with (ánus) life in the barrio.
2. I've cleaned (linís) all the bedrooms.
3. A child should never be lied to (tilá).
4. Take care that the bottle doesn't get filled (kargá).
5. He polished (punás) the roof of the car yesterday.

Translate into English.

1. Nasiksikán mo kasí may báleg a sirá?
2. Areñgelán di Nánay imáy inbagám ed siák.
3. Akargaán na búer imáy botilyán báleg.
4. Abañgatán na maóñg a kagagáwa may ogáw.
5. Akabatán nen Flora ya nilóko kay Bill.

Exercise XXIII paka- ... -an (i), aka- ... -an (c), involuntary.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Open the windows so that (= because it is how) I can breathe (añgés) well (Eq.).
2. She couldn't stay long (ános) with us because of too much work (Eq.).
3. Why is it that he cannot save (típon) his money (Eq.).
4. The swelling on her throat is the cause of her being unable to swallow (akmó) (Eq.).
5. It is through the tail that I can identify (bírbir) my lost chicken (Eq.).

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Translate into English.

1. Say apíley ya salí to so agtó pakaalageyán.
2. Diád bánsal nen Luz so pakapineñgnengán tayó ed mañ-gasawá ed sikató.
3. Inér so akaneñgneñgán mo ed sikará?
4. Diád támbal so pakagastosán ed pansákit.
5. Inér so pakatawayán koy basí?

Exercise XXIV na- ... -an (i), na- + stress shift or vowel deletion ... -an (c), potential, involuntary.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. My pig died because a coconut fell (pelág) on him.
2. I heard (deñgél) that Ruben may be going to America by next month.
3. It's good you were able to reach (ábot) us here in the house.
4. The news is that there was a poor harvest (kebét) in Alcala because of the past flood and storm.

Translate into English.

1. Pinakán ko pián agá narasán naáni dimád mítiñg.
2. Apíger mo pián agka napelangán na nióg.
3. Labáy dan onogíp ta naksawán irá.
4. Nareñgelán to ya sinmabí kayó.
5. Nakebetán so pagéy tayo no agonorán ya maplés.

Benefactive focus

Exercise XXV i- ... -an (i), in- ... -an (c), indicative.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Juana left (tilák) a letter for Luz on the table.
2. I'll buy (salíw) a new dress for my sister.
3. She washed (pesák) my dirty clothing for me.
4. He made (gawá) a new toy for his brother.
5. I'll send (pawít) you ten pesos.

Translate into English.

1. Ibayarán to ak na ótañg ko ed siká.
2. Inbayasán to kamí sakéy dosínan pláto.
3. Isempetán da tayó na dakél ya tinápáy.

4. Inkerewán ko na dakél ya rósas.
5. Initdan nen Juan si Monding na belás.

Exercise XXVI ni- ... -an (c) intensive, potential.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. My sister could sew (daít) a dress for Luz.
2. Could you read (bása) me a story later on?
3. He wouldn't beg (keréw) for his younger brother.
4. He will write (súlat) me a nice story.
5. May she pick (bórbor) lanzones for you?

Translate into English.

1. Nisalogán mo ak na tanáman naáni?
2. Nitanemán to kamí na pónti karomán.
3. Agto ka nipesakán ta aňgaóy sabón.
4. Si Pedring nilagaán to kamí ikamén.
5. Niakopán da kayó na dakél ya buér.

Instrumental focus

Exercise XXVII (i) pan- (i), inpan- (c) (for the use of pan-, inpan- in reference to time phrases, see Exercise XVII (passive affixes)).

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Use the oil in cleaning (linís) the machine (Eq.).
2. They use our bullock in harrowing (báka) the field because it can better withstand the heat (Eq.).
3. Give her the pail because she wants to use it for watering (salóg).
4. Use the ladle in stirring (kiwál) the inaňgit (sticky rice mixed with coconut and sugar) (Eq.).
5. What they will use in dancing (sayáw) for their program is like a Maria Clara (dress) (Eq.).

Translate into English.

1. Say tímba so panásol moy danúm.
2. Sátay baráňg so panpóter koy kiéw.
3. Bislák so pantórok na ikalót a sirá.
4. Inalá toy lápis ko ta sikatqy pansúlat to.
5. Makápoy a pankárot so andokéy a kokó.

Exercise XXVIII (i) *pañgi-*(i), *inpañgi-* (c) (see also Exercise XVII (passive affixes)).

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. I had him leave (tilák) two gantas of rice.
2. Cora put back (pawíl) the top of the bottle the wrong way (Eq).
3. I'll have her send (tolór) the vegetables to Nana Luisa's house (Eq).

Causative Voice

Causation is marked by the prefixing of *pa-* to the word root. The resulting stem is then treated as a unit for further affixation.

Implications of causative voice

Verbs affixed for causative voice indicate that the action has been brought about indirectly – that something has been ‘caused’ to happen. Grammatically, this results in some complications not present in direct-voice (non-causative) sentences, as the action expressed in a causative verb may be directed towards two separate goals, both of which may be represented by separate phrases in the sentence. The first of these goals is the goal of the causation, i.e. the entity (if any) caused to perform the action; the second, the goal of the action itself, i.e. that to which the caused action is directed. These goals are represented in active sentences by the agent and object phrases respectively, when both are present and distinguished from the attributive phrase/subject, which represents the prime mover or causer of the action:

Man-pa-lotó ak na leche flan
will-cause-to cook I(subj) mkr(obj) ...
kindí Nánay
mkr (agent) ...
'I'll have mother cook the leche flan'.

In active, passive, and referent focus sentences, however, one of the goals may also appear as subject of the sentence. As different focus transformations affect the constituents of causative sentences in different ways, it is convenient to discuss these constructions in detail in relation to each of the five fo-

cuses which occur in causative sentences. Agent focus as a grammatical category is confined to direct-voice sentences, although the situations represented in these agent focus sentences parallel very closely the content of causative constructions.

Transitivity and focus relationships in causative sentences

Causative sentences are always at least implicitly transitive, and in most causative sentences at least one of the two possible goals is explicitly stated. It is in causative sentences that the logical as opposed to grammatical nature of transitivity (especially in so far as the goal is concerned) becomes most apparent, as the goals of causation and action play radically different grammatical roles in different focus and modal environments.

Active sentences

The most 'stable' constituent in an active causative sentence, as far as its role in denoting an aspect of transitivity is concerned, is the object phrase, which always marks the goal of the action; similarly, when present, the agent phrase marks the goal of causation. However, these statements do not hold true in reverse, as the subject (focused attributive phrase) of an active sentence may, in the absence of an object or agent phrase, and with certain verbs, concurrently represent the goal of the action, or the agent.

When a causative stem is affixed with on- or ni- (the latter replacing the infix -inm- with causative verbs), the subject of the sentence is concurrently the agent caused to perform the action. With this kind of subject-goal unity, no object or agent phrase occurs in the sentence.

With causative verbs affixed with man- or nan-, however, several possibilities present themselves. There may be a sequence of subject (causer), object (goal of action) and agent phrases, or one or both of the latter phrases may be absent. When the agent phrase is absent, the implication remains that 'someone' will be caused to perform the action (this is also the case with sentences where the causative verb is inflected with active affixes other than man- and nan-). When the object phrase is absent, the subject becomes concurrently causer and goal of the action.

With active affixes other than on-/ni-, the full range of subject, object and agent phrases, as noted above, may be present in the sentence. When an active causative verb is used in an infinitive sense --‘to have someone do it’ --both subject and agent phrases may be deleted, the subject being supplied by implication through the attributive phrase in the main sentence.

Examples:

Mañgipagañgát ak na ogáw ed si Linda (will-cause-to-teach I mkr(obj) child mkr(agent) mkr(personal) Linda). ‘I’ll have Linda teach the child’.

Manpaalagáy itayóy abóng tayó nátan (will-cause-to-stand we + mkr(obj) house our now). ‘We’ll have our house built now’.

Nipatirakiáng imáy marikít (became-caused-to-fall-over mkr(subj) maiden). ‘The girl tripped up (was caused to fall over)’.

Onpatakba may masakén (will-become-caused-to-fall mkr(subj) old-person). ‘The old man will slip!’

Nañpaorán irá (caused-to-rain-upon they). ‘They were rained upon’ (i.e. ‘caused themselves to be rained upon’ -- cf. Naorán irá (were-rained-upon they). ‘They were rained upon (by chance)’.)

Labáy koy manpagawá na galáwgalaw na anakó (liked by-me + mkr(subj) will-cause-to-make mkr (obj) toy mkr(atr) child + my). ‘I want to have someone make a toy for my child’.

Say balolakí so amakís ed sámay ogáw (the bachelor mkr(topic) did-cause-to-cry mkr(agent) the child). ‘The young man made the child cry’.

Passive sentences

In passive sentences, the causer of the action is denoted by the attributive phrase. When the affixes -en and -in- are used with the passive verb stem, the subject of the sentence is the goal of the causation (i.e. the object phrase in a corresponding active sentence) becomes the subject, and the agent phrase remains marked as such when it is present; the existence of an agent is always implied even in the absence of an agent phrase.

Examples:

Ipabañgát ko yan sayáw ed marikít (will-be-caused-to-teach by-me this + lnk dance mkr(agent) maiden). 'I'll make the girl teach this dance'.

Pabáñgaten kon onsayáw si Linda (will-be-caused-to-teach by-me + lnk will-dance mkr(subj) Linda). 'I'll make Linda teach dancing'.

Pinaakís to ak (was-caused-to-cry by-him I). 'He made me cry'.

Agkó napainóm na gátas yay anáko (not + by-me can-be-caused-to-drink mkr(obj) milk mkr(subj) child + my). 'I can't make my child drink milk'.

Say lápis so inpaalá to may marikít ed balolakí (the pencil mkr(topic) was-caused-to-bring by-her mkr(appositive) maiden mkr(agent) bachelor). 'It was the pencil [that] the girl had the young man get'.

Sámay asó so pinakán to may marikít (the dog mkr(topic) was-caused-to-eat by-her mkr(subj) maiden). 'The girl made the dog eat'.

Referent focus sentences

There are two kinds of causative referent focus sentences -- those where the subject of the sentence is concurrently the goal of the action, and those where the subject is not a goal. When the referent/subject is the goal of the action, the goal of the causation (agent) is represented by the object phrase:

<u>Pa-tombok-án</u>	<u>mo-y</u>	<u>telegrama</u>
will-be-caused-to-follow	by-you + mkr(obj)	telegram
	causer	agent
<u>may</u>	<u>súlat.</u>	
mkr(subj)	letter	
goal of action		
'Follow your letter with a telegram'.		

When the subject is not the goal of the action (i.e. when the referent is an indirect object, or the location of the action, etc.), the object phrase represents this constituent of the sentence, and the presence of an agent is implied but not expressed:

<u>Pa-tolor-án</u>	<u>da</u>	<u>itayó</u>
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will-be-caused-to-take	by-them	we
	causer	referent
<u>na belás</u>	<u>no</u>	<u>símba.</u>
mkr(obj) rice	when	week
goal of action	time	
‘They will have some rice sent us next week’.		

The sentence above may be translated more literally as ‘(Someone) will be caused by them to take us rice next week’, or ‘We will be caused by them to be taken rice to next week’. In such sentences the subject/ referent is an indirect rather than a direct goal of both the action and the causation, the direct goal of the former being marked as object, and that of the latter un-expressed.

Examples:

Patolongán ka kinen Leo (will-be-caused-to-(be-) help(ed) you mkr(obj) Leo). ‘Get Leo to help you’ (subject = goal action).

Say kuánto so pasiromán na pinaór so babóy to (the said + by-her mkr(obj) will-be-caused-to-shade mkr(obj) nipa-thatch mkr(subj) pig her). ‘She says her pig will be shaded with nipa thatch (i.e. she’s going to shade her pig with nipa thatch)’. (Subject + goal of action).

Pakalabán moy nióg itáy amígom (will-be-caused-to-(be-) climb(-ed) by-you + mkr(obj) coconut mkr(subj) friend + your). ‘Have someone climb the coconut for your friend’ (subject = indirect object).

Pabauesan ko konóy kuárta (will-be-caused-to-lend (be-lent) by-me he(Ø) indeed + mkr(obj) money). ‘It seems that he’ll be borrowing money from me. (lit. I’ll be causing him to be lent money.)’ (subject = indirect object).

Diád tagéy so pangipaagewán moy impesák mon kawés (there + at above mkr(topic) will-be-caused-to-(be-) sun(ned) by-you + mkr(obj) laundered your + lnk clothes). ‘Put your laundry upstairs to dry’. (Subject = location).

Benefactive and instrument focus sentences

Benefactive and instrumental causative sentences are the least complex in terms of the relationship between their logical and grammatical constituents. The subject is the beneficiary or

instrument, as the case may be, the causer is denoted by the attributive phrase, the goal of the action marked as object in a benefactive sentence (as object or referent in an instrumental sentence), and the goal of the causation marked as agent.

Examples:

Ipasaliwán ak na tímbey ed sátay anák mo (will-be-caused-to-buy(be-bought-for) I mkr(obj) thread mkr(agent) the child my). 'I'll get my child to buy me some thread'. (In this sentence the subject is by inference also the causer --cf. the example immediately following).

Ipapupuán yo ak na samplóran kawayán (will-be-caused-to-(be-)cut(-for) by-you I mkr(obj) ten-individual + lnk bamboo). 'Have ten lengths of bamboo cut for me'.

Ipakalobán toy nióg irá (will-be-caused-to-be-climbed-for by-him + mkr(obj) they). 'He'll have the coconut climbed for them'.

Sátay baráñg so panpapotér day kiéw kinen Juan (the bolo mkr(topic) will-be-caused-to-cut-with by-them + mkr(obj) wood mkr(agent) Juan). 'That bolo is the one they'll let Juan cut the wood with'.

Exercises --Causative Verbal Sentences

The exercises below follow the same format as those for direct voice sentences, q.v.

Active sentences

Exercise XXIX man- (i), nan- (c) + pa-.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. It's better if you have someone wash (pesák) (for you) because washing is difficult.
2. Heat up (petáñg) the water for bathing Baby.
3. Kuya Milong will have someone buy (salíw) a lot of bread.
4. Later on I'll get someone to ask (keréw) some cake from Atchi Luz.
5. Let him teach (bangát) you the new dance.

Translate into English.

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

1. Labáy koy manpabélañg na kiéw kíndi Máma Encióng.
2. Manpadáit ak na kawés do kínen Remy.
3. Manpabatík ka pay lápis ed garíta maganó.
4. Nanpalinís ak na abóñg mi ta waláy onsabín bisíta mi no ñgárem.
5. Manpatolór ka la diád abóñg mi na kánen no agkamí makaonlá dimád sikayó.

Passive sentences

Exercise XXX i- (i), in- (c) + pa-.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Send (tolór) this book tomorrow to Joe at his office.
2. Don't forget to show (neñgnéñg) the papers concerning (= of) the land to the attorney.
3. I'll let the children copy (sakál) the song.
4. Get someone to climb (kaláb) that coconut because the nuts are already dry.
5. Call Jose because I'm going to have him carry (awít) this heavy box.

Translate into English.

1. Ipagoyór ta la ed duég ta pián maganó.
2. Say kuánto so ipasabím yan balíta ed kindí tátay to.
3. Inpalotók imáy pónti ya timebá nen kabuasán.
4. Agtó labáy a ipabása so sulsulat nen Pedro ed sikató.
5. Ipabayés mo labát tay kátlim ta agnaderál.

Exercise XXXI na- (i), a- (c) + pa-.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. It is indeed bad to make our parents cry (akís).
2. Can you make Aunt Cion stay behind (tilálak) after the celebration today?
3. You can make them come (akár) here if you know how to persuade.
4. Let me know if you can get your older brother to pass by (labás).

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5. He would like to be able to get the one he's courting to answer (ebát) him tonight.

Translate into English.

1. Apaasiñgér ko imáy ogáw no waláy kíndi.
2. Agmo nátan napabatík itán so kabáyom ta apiléy.
3. Napasémpet tayó komón nátan a ágew.
4. Maírap a napaóroñg ed eskuélaan imáy agí to.
5. Napaelék tayó kasí si Luísa et maermén a maong.

Referent focus sentences

Exercise XXXII -an (i), -in- ... -an (c) + pa-.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. It's better to let your letter be followed (tómbok) by a telegram so they will come home immediately.
2. Let Juan help you put the box on top of (atagéy) the wardrobe.
3. I would like you to accompany (íba) me to Dagupan.
4. She says I should lend (báyes) him my money, but I have no money!
5. Could you let me have (keréw) a pinch of salt?

Translate into English.

1. Pinatolorán to kamí na belás nen karomán.
2. Patanemán koy maís nátan imáy dálin mi.
3. Pasilewán ka pian nanéñgneñg mon maóñg tay dadáiten mo.
4. Pasulatán mo kinen Ely irámay sóbre ya ipawít mod siák.
5. Pinabolosán mi tilápia may bobón ed álog.

Benefactive focus sentences

Exercise XXXIII i- ... -an (i), in- ... -an (c), + pa-.

Translate into Pangasinan.

1. Get someone to climb (kaláb) the coconut for Uncle Enciong so he can have something to take to Manila.

PHRASES AND SENTENCES

2. Please have Luisa drop off (samár) a fish in the town for me.
3. I'll have a piglet cooked (lotó) for you.
4. I had him sew (dáit) your clothes for you because his tailoring is good.
5. Let Susie bring home (sempét) some apples for me tomorrow.

Translate into English.

1. No labáy mo ipasakalán ka ed si Nena ta marakép so súlat to.
2. Agko labáy a iparoñoán da ak na ambetél ya báaw.
3. Inpasaliwán tay belás ed sámay anák mo.
4. Ipatombokán moy swíter to pián ag nabetelán so benég to.
5. Ipasalogán ak ed siká ta agkó labáy a nabasá so salík.

APPENDIX I

INDEX TO AFFIXES

The affixes discussed individually in the grammar are listed below, with references to the section or sections of the grammar where each is treated. The following abbreviations are used to indicate the sections concerned.

a	Adjectives:	Derivational affixes
-der		
a -id	Adjectives:	Affixes of intensity and diminution
adv	Adverbs	
caus	Verbal	Causative voice
	sentences:	
ex -c	Verbal	Exercises -Causative voice
	sentences:	
ex -d	Verbal	Exercises -Direct voice
	sentences:	
n -	Nouns:	Nominal affixes
n1		
n -np	Nouns:	Non-productive affixes
n -nz	Nouns:	Nominalizing affixes
n -	Nouns:	Plurality
p1		
num	Numerals:	Affixes associated with numeral stems
V	Verbs:	Verbal affixes

Ø - v

C₁V- n-p1

CV+ -en/-an n-nz

(C)VC- n-p1

CVC- n-n1

CVC+ -ra num

(C)V(C)+ non-past (incomplete) v

(C)VCV- n-p1

APPENDIX I

Reduplication of whole root + incomplete aspect v

Reduplication of whole root cf. partial reduplication a-id

Reduplication of whole root +/-stress shifts n-n1

Stress shift n-pl (see also na-(inv.))

a- a-der

a- v, ex 15

-a n-np

a- ... - an v, ex 22

-ada, -ado n-np

-ado, -ada a-der

ag- v

agka- adv

aka- v, ex 5

aka- ... -an v, ex 23

akai- ... -an n-nz

akan- n-n1

aki- v, ex 6

aki- + CV- a-der

aki- ... -an v

alas- num

ama- v

amin num

-an v, ex 18, ex 32

-an n-nz

an- a-der

aN- v, ex 3

aN- ... -an v, ex 20

-ana, -ano n-np

añgi- v, ex 4

APPENDIX I

añgi- ... -an v
añka- a-id
-dor n-np
-en v, ex 12
-en num
-eño n-np
-[en]se n-np
-(e)riá n-np
-era, -ero n-np
-(é)s n-p1
-g- + CV- a-id
i- v, ex 13, ex 30
i-... -an v, ex 25, ex 33
ika-nun
-illo n-np
in-v, ex 13, ex 0
-in-v, ex 12
-in-n-n1
-in-n-nz -in-+ CV-a-der
-in-v
in-... -an v, ex 25
-in-... -an v, ex 18
inka-n-n1, n-nz
inki-n-nz
-inm-v, ex 1
inpai-v
inpama-v
inpan- v, ex 27
inpaN- v

APPENDIX I

inpañgi- v, ex 28

(i)pan- v, ex 27

(i)paN- v

(i)pañgi- v, ex 28

-(i)ra num

-ismo n-np

-ista n-np

-ita, -ito n-np, a-id

ka- n-n1

ka- n-n1, n-nz

ka-n-nz

ka-num

ka- ... -an n-p1

ka- ... -an n-nz

ka- ... -an n-n1, n-nz

ka- ... -an n-nz

ka- + CVC- ... -an n-n1

kada- n-n1

kaka- num

kapan- a-der

ki- n-nz

ki- + CV- a-der

ki- + CV- + unstressed syllable n-nz

ki- ... -an n-nz

koma- num

ma- a-der

magin- n-n1

magka- a-der

magkaka- a-der

APPENDIX I

magsi-v
magsi-... -an v
maí-+CV-a-der
maka-v, ex 8, ex 9
makaka-v, ex 10
makan-n-n1
makapa-a-der
maki-+CV-a-der
mala-a-der
mama-v
mamin-num
man-v, ex 2, ex 29
man-v
man-a-der
man+ CV-num
man+ CVC(V) v
man-... -an v
manag-n-nz
manaN-n-nz
manka-a-id
mankaka a-id
maN- v, ex 3
maN-, man- n-n1
maN-n-n1
mañga-n-nz
mañgi-v, ex 4
mapa-a-der
mapaN-a-der
-mento n-np

APPENDIX I

mi-v, ex 6

mi-... -an v, ex 7

mika- num

na- v, ex 15, ex 31

na- v, ex 16

na- + stress shift or vowel deletion v, ex 16

na- a-der

na-... - an v, ex 22

na-... - an v, ex 24

na- + stress shift etc ... -an v, ex 24

nagka-adv

nagsi-v, ex 11

nai-v

naka-... -an v nan-v, ex 2

nan-v, ex 2

nan-a-der

nan-... -an v, ex 19

nan-... -an v

ni-v, ex 14

ni-caus

ni-n-n1

ni-... -an v, ex 26

-o n-np

-om-n-nz

on-v, ex 1; num

on- +CV-v

-on n-np

pa-v, ex 29-33

pa-+ reduplicated root a-der

APPENDIX I

pagsi- ... -an v

pai- v

paka- n-nz

paka-v

paka- ... -n v, ex 23

pama-v

pan-v, ex 17 (see also (i)pan-)

pan-... -an v, ex 19

pan-... -en v

panag- n-nz

panan- n-nz

panaṅgi- n-nz

paN- v, ex 17 (see also (i)pan-)

paN- ... -an v, ex 20

paN- ... -an n-nl

paṅgi-v, ex 17 (see also (i)paṅgi-)

paṅgi-... -an v, ex 21

para- n-nz

pi n-nz

pi(n)-num

pinagka- n-nl

pinan-v

sam-num

san-n-nl

sanka-n-nl

sanka-a-der

sanka- ... -an n-nl

sanka- ... -an a-id

sinan- a-der

APPENDIX I

-ción n-np

tig- num

APPENDIX II

KEYS TO EXERCISES

EXERCISE I

English to Pangasinan

1. Onpepetáng may plancha.
2. Pinmawíl so ogógaw ed kaabongán da.
3. Onkérew na kuárta si Luisa kinen amá to.
4. Onkikíme y la may masakén.
5. Linmá diá may toón somisingil na siléw.

Pangasinan to English

1. The child went with his mother.
2. We will answer the call of the poor.
3. The newly-born child is breathing.
4. Our washerwoman did not come.
5. The girl's eyes widened (became large).

EXERCISE II

English to Pangasinan

1. Manbása ka na istíria ed aráp na kláse.
2. Labáy ko iran mangálaw ed abóng mi.
3. Nanamés si Julian ed ílog.
4. Nanpesák irá di Nánay na maringót na kawés mi.
5. Di Juanita tan si Luz so mansálog na macétas.

Pangasinan to English

1. We'll go (Let's go) and watch TV at Nena's (with Nena [and her household]).
2. You (are the one who) will take care of the plates and glasses.
3. Atchi (older sister) will fold the laundry.
4. Raul cycled fast.
5. The girl was not still bathing when the young man arrived.

APPENDIX II

EXERCISE III

English to Pangasinan

1. Sálim so manáwal na handbag ed sámay láko nen Nana Maria.
2. Angalá ak la na kawés ya pamásko di Nánay.
3. Mangerél na manók tayó.
4. Anámsam na tinápay si Amparo ed sakéy ya ogáw.
5. Mangétket imáy asó di báí Felising.

Pangasinan to English

1. I know you believe (sísia) your parents now.
2. He likes very much to eat (kan) Filipino food.
3. The maiden smelt (angób) the fragrant flower.
4. The big snake bit (kalát) someone (a man).
5. I'll keep an eye on (siím) the boy who'll harvest (bórbor) the fruit.

EXERCISE IV

English to Pangasinan

1. Bulldozer so mangitulák na dálin.
2. Mangitapéw kayó na plato ed lamisáan.
3. Angisingér si Fe na talóran manók.
4. Mangikokótkot si Juan na lusék.
5. Siák so mangipawíl na líbro diád aparadór.

Pangasinan to English

1. Who will wash my dress?
2. Juan will plant the bananas in our orchard.
3. I brought a pig here because it's your birthday.
4. Juan left a pencil on the table.
5. Raul taught Cora, but she didn't want to learn.

EXERCISE V

English to Pangasinan

1. Akaogíp di báí ed tógtog na rádio.
2. Balbáleg ya otót so akagawá na abót ed díngding.
3. Agko anéngneng so akapotípot ya lobír.

APPENDIX II

4. Akasabít dimád lósek may sombrero nen láki.
5. Si atchík akadaít na talóran áysing ko.

Pangasinan to English

1. Jose picked a sackful of kalamansi (with a kalawít).
2. He bit a bone, so his tooth is chipped.
3. My handkerchief won't be lost because I've written my name (on it).
4. The prisoner is no longer there because he escaped.
5. Your grandmother has a lot of money tucked in her skirt.

EXERCISE VI

English to Pangasinan

1. Akibinyág kamí ed Bayambáng karomán.
2. Labáy ko so misáyaw ed sikató.
3. Mitúyaw tayó ed sikarán amín.
4. Akilotó ak ed sikará ta naopotán kamí kiéw.
5. Akisalát ak na libro kinen Susi.

Pangasinan to English

1. Could we watch your TV, grandmother?
2. Mother asked (lit sought mercy from) Elisa to accompany me in going to Dagupan.
3. He doesn't want to join us in eating.
4. I was frightened to come home because it was already night time so I slept at their house.
5. Jose is not the same height (lit. the height is not mutually the same) as Pedro.

EXERCISE VII

English to Pangasinan

1. Labáy ko so misulatán ed sikayó no walá kila ed America.
2. Agto gusto so misugatán ed samay matdém ya baráng to.
3. Agto labáy so midiwitán ed sikató.
4. Akiketketán imáy asóm ed siák.
5. Migawaán ka na kasulatán ed kinen Mrs. Cruz.

Pangasinan to English

APPENDIX II

1. Your feelings and my feelings are joined as one.
2. Susan is ashamed to face me.
3. I exchanged stamps with her.
4. He can't talk without shouting (lit 'shouting is what he knows about conversing').
5. Juan forgave Pedring.

EXERCISE VIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Agmakasabí si Luisa ta lábi la.
2. Makaináwa ak nátan ta wadiá kayón amín.
3. Agní makaalagáy may ogáw.
4. Sikató so makatúlong ed iná to.
5. Agmakalimatá may masikén.

Pangasinan to English

1. Can Jose climb the coconut?
2. You can see good movies in Manila.
3. He can't cross the river because the water is deep.
4. I can't chop the wood because my machete is dull.
5. His right arm cannot write (i.e. He can't write with his right arm).

EXERCISE IX

English to Pangasinan

1. Agák makapitolór na inatáy nabuás ta waláy láen ko.
2. Makapiolóp la komón si Linda ed sikayó no lúnes.
3. Labáy di tátay so makapitongtóng kindí Mama Lucio.
4. Samár ka ed abóng mi pián makapinengnéng ka met kinen Luz.
5. Siák labát so makapibánsal kinen Cora diád Ibale.

Pangasinan to English

1. You'll be able to dance with Linda if you come with us to the dance.
2. You'll be able to listen to Atchi Cion's stereo when they arrive.
3. I'll go to kuya Ben's house to ask for pecha.
4. We'll stay there late so we can have our supper together.

APPENDIX II

5. Come early tomorrow so you can also attend the prayer.

EXERCISE X

English to Pangasinan

1. Makakairóng ak ed bangko.
2. Say kuánto so makakainóm lamét na álak.
3. Makakaamés ed báybay si Susie.
4. Makakaorán nen linmá ak diá karomán.
5. Makakasempét si Susie no nanonotán to ka.

Pangasinan to English

1. It is likely to flood when it rains hard in Alcala.
2. I feel like picking some santol fruit.
3. The peanuts planted in the field are likely to need rain already.
4. Nena most likely would feel like eating beef liver.
5. The sweetness of the music is making me drowsy (lit I'm inclined to sleep from the sweetness of the music).

EXERCISE XI

English to Pangasinan

1. Say kuán di tátay ko so magsinónot lay biláy dan sanaági.
2. Gabáy ko ya magsigawá tayóy abóng.
3. Nagsiparáan kayóy awít yo pián anggapóy natilák.
4. Sáray domarálos so nagsikíme y na dálin da no óntan a panagtánem.
5. Nagsiasikáso na komís ton ogáw no wadmán tíla ed baybáy.

Pangasinan to English

1. The brothers and sisters get along well together because each washes his own clothes.
2. The children are each supposed to clean their own place (seat).
3. Each of you take whatever food you like from the table.
4. Mama Inciong said that each should bring his own food to the picnic.

APPENDIX II

5. Each should choose what he wants to buy so we can be quick.

EXERCISE XII

English to Pangasinan

1. Labáy ton tómbaen imáy kawayán.
2. Pinmatéy ko may manók karomán.
3. Agkó amtán gáwaen imáy aderál ya rádío.
4. Say báleg ya kuárto so pinilí dan panayamán.
5. Anonotán dan togyopén imáy móyong da.

Pangasinan to English

1. Drink all your milk.
2. He ground the rice very fine.
3. I want to eat the apple on top of the table.
4. He doesn't know how to catch the ball.
5. Don't call them.

EXERCISE XIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Intulák da so jeep ta ag onkoráng.
2. Insígbat ko ed bató may bárang ya báleg.
3. Ipesák nen Nánay imáy balón áysing ko.
4. Itilák da si Juán ed abóng mi.
5. Inpawíl mon maóng kasí ed angalaán mo imáy líbro?

Pangasinan to English

1. They lay the mirror down carefully on the floor.
2. My brother will put his Texas rooster in the cockfight.
3. I'll exchange the pot for a bigger one.
4. Empty all the water out of the can.
5. He wiped his face with my handkerchief (lit he wiped my handkerchief on his face).

EXERCISE XIV

English to Pangasinan

1. Agto nipawíl ya támpol so sakób na láta.

APPENDIX II

2. Nipásal so ogáw ya mandásal ed ágewágew.
3. Nibiláng ya maóng ya kaáro si Linda.
4. Agkó amtán nisalát so pányok ed sikató.
5. Walá ni pagéy ya niláko yo.

Pangasinan to English

1. Whom did you go to?
2. Can you (= is there reason to) plant stems of bamboo?
3. (There is reason to believe that) John can push the big box.
4. They were taught well at school.
5. We thought you were here.

EXERCISE XV

English to Pangasinan

1. Apigár so kajón ed kasíl na dagém.
2. Nasingér nen Pedro may babóy.
3. Agto labáy so natilák.
4. Asómpal ya amín so labáy yon nagáwa.
5. Anéngneng ta ka.

Pangasinan to English

1. The child pulled the rope.
2. We practiced all the songs in only a week.
3. Our rice plants will be all flooded.
4. The ne'er do well cut the bananas I planted on Saturday.
5. The guava (tree) will fall if the wind is strong.

EXERCISE XVI

English to Pangasinan

1. Naawát koy súlat mo karomán.
2. Apíger yo irátay báso pián anggapoy napisít.
3. Anéngneng ko ya nabuál may kiéw karomán na ngárem.
4. Naksít nen Elisa may talóran báso di atqhík.
5. Naksél a maóng so babóy ko kanián indukól to la.

Pangasinan to English

1. He doesn't know that he shot the dove with the toy gun.

APPENDIX II

2. Hopefully you will soon receive his letter.
3. I didn't realize that I had taken Belen's sweater.
4. Your pig is not yet satisfied.
5. He won't fight you if the goat is shot.

EXERCISE XVII

English to Pangasinan

1. Nabuás so pangipawít koy súlat ed siká.
2. Naáni so pangilutó tayó na adóbon áwiten tayó ed picnic.
3. Nátan so maóng a pantípon na belás.
4. Nabuás la so pangáwa di nánay na kánen.
5. Kapigán so pangán moy babóy mo?

Pangasinan to English

1. It's dangerous to walk in the forest at night.
2. (My) sister cooked leche flan last Saturday.
3. Yesterday I sent money to my grandchild.
4. When will you get the mangos?
5. Last night he cooked the menudo which we took to Laki (Grandfather) Mariano('s).

EXERCISE XVIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Orasán dan amín irámay pláto.
2. Tinolangán mi ed panáral to ed Manila.
3. Tinipakán da na maksíl imáy angasión.
4. Kalboán mo na ampetáng ya danúm irámay pláto, báso tan kutsára.
5. Bolosán toy tilópia may bobón ed álog.

Pangasinan to English

1. Send some fish to Awing.
2. They are expecting you to arrive.
3. That stove is where the fish were cooked.
4. Will you invite many?
5. Please eat your soup quietly!

EXERCISE XIX

APPENDIX II

English to Pangasinan

1. Siopá so nantépetán tayóy kolaán nen Pedro?
2. Diád talágdanán so pangérgerán mi na kárne.
3. Say báleg ya Pláto so nanákloán na báaw.
4. Inér so pansábitán to ray kawés to?
5. Diád ílog so pankálapán moy dakél ya sirá.

Pangasinan to English

1. Rice is winnowed in the bigaó (winnowing basket).
2. It's not good (lit. it's foolish) to trick an old woman.
3. Pedro will sell the radio in the market.
4. Where will you be working (making a living)?
5. Your sister's sari-sari store is where I used to buy tupig in Bugallon.

EXERCISE XX

English to Pangasinan

1. Dimád Rosales so panaliwán da na tinápay.
2. Antám kasí so panombokán mo kinén amám?
3. Siák so panepetán da na inbagá to.
4. Siopá so pangerewán koy bolóng na pónti?
5. Dimád tanáman yo so angalawitán toy kalamansí.

Pangasinan to English

1. Linda is the one we should believe (sisia) because she saw it.
2. I don't know where I'm going to get (ala) the money.
3. I chopped up (galip) the onions on the chopping board.
4. He pinched (karot) your younger brother on the arm.
5. Where will Pedro eat (kan)?

EXERCISE XXI

English to Pangasinan

1. Sikató so pangisalatán moy líbro.
2. Tuká so pangilotoán moy sirá.
3. Say masiteram so angitanemán koy rósas.
4. Dimád aparadór so angipawilán toy líbro.
5. Diád ospital so angibatikán man atalápos ya ogáw.

APPENDIX II

Pangasinan to English

1. You should keep the fish in the safe.
2. I don't know where he's going to plant the bananas.
3. Where did you write the announcement?
4. My older sister is the one I asked to support me at school.
5. Whereabouts (in which place) will your older brother nail the board?

EXERCISE XXII

English to Pangasinan

1. Agko naanusán so biláy ed bário.
2. Alinisán ko lan amín iráy kuárto.
3. Ag balót natilaán so ogáw.
4. Apíger mo pián agnakargaán itáy botilya.
5. Apunasán to la karomán so tóktok na autó.

Pangasinan to English

1. Could you scale the large fish?
2. Mother heard what you told me.
3. The big bottle was filled with sand (i.e. sand filled the bottle).
4. The child was taught by good deeds.
5. Flora knew that they had tricked Bill.

EXERCISE XXIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Lukasán yo ray bentána ta sikató so pakaangesán kon maóng.
2. Dakél ya trabájo so agtó akaanosán ed sikamí.
3. Antó kasí so agtó pakatiponán na kuárta to.
4. Say larág ed bekléw to so agto pakaakmoán na antokamán.
5. Samay ikol so pakabirbiran ko ed abalang ya manok ko.

Pangasinan to English

1. She cannot stand because of her fractured foot.
2. It's at the wedding of Luz that we'll be able to see her husband-to-be.

APPENDIX II

3. Where did you happen to see them?
4. Medicine is a cause of expense when one is sick.
5. Where can I taste some basi (sugar-cane-wine)?

EXERCISE XXIV

English to Pangasinan

1. Inatáy so babóy ko ta naplagán na nióg.
2. Nangelán ko ya onlá konó si Ruben ed America no onsalát a bolán.
3. Maóng ta naabotán yo kamí diád abóng.
4. Say balíta so nakbetán so Alcala lapúd sámay linmabás a deláp tan bágio.

Pangasinan to English

1. I fed him so he wouldn't be hungry (erás) later on at the meeting.
2. Be careful that a coconut doesn't fall (pelág) on you.
3. They went to sleep because they're exhausted (kesáw).
4. He will hear (dengél) that you have arrived.
5. Our rice plants will wither (kebét) if it doesn't rain hard.

EXERCISE XXV

English to Pangasinan

1. Intilakán nen Juana na súlat si Luz ed lamisaán.
2. Isaliwán ko na balón kawés to may agík.
3. Inpesakán to ak na maringót kon kawés.
4. Ingawaán to na balón galawgálaw may agí to.
5. Ipawitán ta ka na sámploy písos.

Pangasinan to English

1. He'll pay my debt to you for me.
2. He borrowed a dozen plates for us.
3. They'll be bringing us back a lot of bread.
4. She asked for a lot of flowers for him.
5. Juan gave Mondong some rice.

EXERCISE XXVI

English to Pangasinan

APPENDIX II

1. Nidaitán nen atchík na kawés si Luz.
2. Nibasaán mo ak kasí naáni na istória?
3. Agto nikerewán na papél imáy agí to.
4. Nisulatán to ak na marakép ya stória.
5. Niborborán to ka kasí na lansónes?

Pangasinan to English

1. Would you water the plants for me afterwards?
2. He planted the bananas for us yesterday.
3. She can't wash for you because there's no soap.
4. Pedring will weave a mat for us.
5. They could gather up a lot of sand for you.

EXERCISE XXVII

English to Pangasinan

1. Say larák so panlínis mo ed mákina.
2. Sámay báka mi so panbáka da ta mamákpel ed petáng.
3. Itér moy tímba ta sikatóy labáy ton pansálog.
4. Áklo so pankíwal mo ed sátay inangít.
5. Singá konó Maria Clara so pansáyaw da diád prográma da.

Pangasinan to English

1. Use the pail for fetching the water.
2. I'll use that bolo to cut the wood.
3. A stick is used as a spit (lit. for piercing) for roasting fish.
4. He took my pencil because he'll be using it to write with.
5. A long fingernail is a handicap in pinching (lit. ineffective for pinching with).

EXERCISE XXVIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Inpangitilák koy duáran salóp ya belás.
2. Aliwá so inpangipawíl nen Cora na sakób na botílya.
3. Sikató so pangitolór koy pisíng ed abóng di Nana Luisa.

EXERCISE XXIX

English to Pangasinan

APPENDIX II

1. Maóng no manpapesák ka la ta maírap so manpésak.
2. Manpapatáng kay danúm a panámes nen Baby.
3. Manpasalíw na dakél a tinápay si Kuya Milong.
4. Manpakeréw ak naáni na kánen kindí Atchí Luz.
5. Manpabangát ka na bálon sayáw ed sikató.

Pangasinan to English

1. I would like to have Mama Enciong chop the wood.
2. I'll have Remy sew my dress.
3. Please have someone bring a pencil from the store quickly.
4. I had the house cleaned because we have visitors arriving this afternoon.
5. Let someone bring the cake to our place if we're unable to come to yours.

EXERCISE XXX

English to Pangasinan

1. Ipatolór mo nabuás yay libro kinen José diád oficina to.
2. Agmó lilinguanán a ipannengnéng iráy papéles na dálin ed abogado.
3. Ipasakál koy kansiún ed ogógaw.
4. Ipakaláb yo la tay nióg ta amagá lan amín so bongá to.
5. Táwag mo José ta ipaawít ko yay ambelát a kajón ed sikató.

Pangasinan to English

1. We'd better let the carabao pull it so it will be (done) quick(ly).
2. She says you should be the one to have this news conveyed to his father.
3. I had the bananas that were cut down this morning cooked.
4. She doesn't want to let him read Pedro's letters.
5. Just lend your scissors -they won't be damaged.

EXERCISE XXXI

English to Pangasinan

1. Makápoy konón napaakís so áteng tayó.

APPENDIX II

2. Napatilák mo irá kasí si tiá Cion natan kasómpal na pónsia?
3. Napaakár mo irá diá no amtám so mangoyóng.
4. Ibagám ed siák no napalabás moy kúyam.
5. Labáy to napaebát may kakárawen to naáni no labí.

Pangasinan to English

1. I could have made the child come near if there had been some candy.
2. You can't make your horse gallop now because it's lame.
3. Hopefully we'll be able to get them to come home today.
4. It's difficult (for him) to send his younger brother to school.
5. Perhaps we can make Luisa laugh even though she's very lonely.

EXERCISE XXXII

English to Pangasinan

1. Mamaóng no patombokán moy telegráma may súlat mo pián onsémpet irán támpol.
2. Patolongán ka kinen Leo ya mangiatagáy na kahón ed aparadór.
3. Labáy ko komón so paibáan ed siká diád Dagupan.
4. Say kuánto pabayesán ko konóy kuárta, bálet ta anggapóy kuártak.
5. Pakerewán mo ak pay daisét a asín yo?

Pangasinan to English

1. He sent us some rice yesterday.
2. I'm going to have our land planted with corn today.
3. Get someone to (provide) light (for) you so you can see properly what you're sewing.
4. Let Ely address the envelopes which you send me.
5. We had tilapia released in the well in the field.

EXERCISE XXXIII

English to Pangasinan

1. Ipakalabán moy nióg irá di Tió Enciong pián waláy naawít da ed Manila.

APPENDIX II

2. Ipasamarán mo ak pay sirá ed báley kínen Luísa.
3. Ipalotoán ta kay sakéy a belék.
4. Inpasaitán ta ka na kawés mo ed sikató ta marakép so dáit to.
5. Ipasempetán mo ak na mansánas kínen Susie nabuás.

Pangasinan to English

1. If you like, have Nena copy for you because she has nice penmanship.
2. I don't want them to serve me cold rice.
3. We let your child buy him some rice.
4. Get someone to follow him with his sweater so his back doesn't get cold.
5. I'll let you do the watering because I don't want my feet to get wet.

APPENDIX III

MISCELLANEOUS LEXICAL ITEMS

Personal pronouns

Person	Subject/ Topic	Attributive	Independent
1 singular	<u>ak</u>	<u>ko</u>	<u>siák</u>
2 familiar	<u>ka</u>	<u>mo</u>	<u>siká</u>
3 familiar	<u>Ø, -a</u>	<u>to</u>	<u>sikató</u>
1 incl. dual	<u>itá</u>	<u>ta</u>	<u>sikatá</u>
1 incl. pl.	<u>itayó</u>	<u>tayó</u>	<u>sikatayó</u>
1 excl.	<u>kamí</u>	<u>mi</u>	<u>sikamí</u>
2 resp. or pl.	<u>kayó</u>	<u>yo</u>	<u>sikayó</u>
3 resp. or pl.	<u>irá</u>	<u>da</u>	<u>sikará</u>

Basic demonstratives

near speaker	<u>ya</u>
near addressee	<u>tan</u>
distant	<u>man</u>

Case-marking particles

	<u>Personal</u>		<u>Non-Personal</u>	
	sing./ Familiar	Pl./ Resp.	Singular/ Neutral	Plural
Subject/Topic	<u>si</u>	<u>di</u>	<u>imáy, so</u>	<u>irámáy</u>
Attributive	<u>nen</u>	<u>di</u>	<u>-y</u>	
Object			<u>na, -y*</u>	
Other	<u>kínen</u>	<u>kindí</u>	<u>na, -y</u>	
			<u>ed</u>	

* Usu. na only in verbal sentences

APPENDIX III

Basic numerals

'one'	<u>sakéy, isá</u>	'eight'	<u>waló</u>
'two'	<u>duá</u>	'nine'	<u>siám</u>
'three'	<u>taló</u>	'decade'	<u>poló</u>
'four'	<u>apát</u>	'hundred'	<u>lasós</u>
'five'	<u>limá</u>	'thousand'	<u>libó</u>
'six'	<u>aném</u>	'how many'	<u>pigá</u>
'seven'	<u>apát</u>	'-teen'	<u>labín-</u>

Focus-marking verbal affixes

The verbal affixes dealt with in the grammar are listed below in relation to the focus marked by each. When two affixes differ from each other only in regard to the aspectual qualities of completeness vs. incompleteness, they are listed together, that denoting completed action following that marked for incompleteness, and separated from the latter by a slash, e.g. man-/nan-. Some examples of affixed verb stems follow the lists.

Active affixes

Ø (imperative), paka-/aka-, mi-/aki-, mi- ... -an/ aki- ... -an, mama-/ama-, maN-/ aN-, mañgi-/añgi-, on-/inm-/ni- before pa-, magsi-/nagsi-, magsi- ... -an/nagsi- ... -an, maka-, makaka-, man-/nan-, man-+ CVC-/nan-+ CVC-, man- ... -an/nan- ... -an, pagsi- ... -an (= magsi- ... -an).

Passive affixes

Ø (imperative), na-/a-, -en/-in-, i-/in-, na-/na- + vowel deletion or stress shift, nai-, ni-, pan-/inpan-, paN/inpaN-, pañgi-/inpañgi-.

Referent focus affixes

na- ... -an/a- ... -an, paka- ... -an/aka- ... -an, -an/in- ... -an/nan- ... -an following pi- ... aN- ... -an/paN- ... -an, añgi- ... -an/pangi- ... -an, na- ... -an/na- + vowel deletion or stress shift ... -an, naka- ... -an, pan- ... -an/ nan- ... -an.

Benefactive focus affixes

i- ... -an/in- ... -an, ni- ... -an, ni- ... -an.

APPENDIX III

Instrumental focus affixes

pama-/inpama-, (i)pan-/inpan-, (i)paN-/inpaN-, (i) pañgi-/inpañgi-.

Agent focus affixes

pai-/inpai-, pan- ... -en/pinan-.

Examples of affixed verb stems

<u>neñgneñg</u>	‘see’, ‘be seen!’
<u>akaneñgneñg</u>	‘happened to see’
<u>nanneñgneñg</u>	‘saw’
<u>mannéñgneñg</u>	‘will see’
<u>manneneñgneñg</u>	‘seeing’
<u>naneñgneñg</u>	‘will (can) be seen’
<u>aneñgéñg</u>	‘was (could be) seen’
<u>makaneñgneñg</u>	‘can see’
<u>manneñgneñgán</u>	‘will see each other’
<u>nanneñgneñgán</u>	‘saw each other’
<u>akaneñgneñgán</u>	‘happened to be seen at’
<u>nanneñgneñgán</u>	‘was seen at’
<u>nengneñgéñ</u>	‘will be seen’
<u>nineñgneñg</u>	‘was seen’
<u>taném</u>	‘plant’, ‘be planted!’
<u>mantánem</u>	‘will plant’
<u>itaném</u>	‘will be planted’
<u>tanemán</u>	‘will be planted at’
<u>pantaném</u>	‘will be planted with’
<u>itanemán</u>	‘will be planted for’
<u>pantánemen</u>	‘will be made to plant’
<u>amataném</u>	‘caused to be planted’
<u>amapataném</u>	‘had (someone) plant’
<u>kansión</u>	‘sing’
<u>angansión</u>	‘sang’
<u>mañgansión</u>	‘will sing’
<u>mañgakansión</u>	‘singing’
<u>mankansión</u>	‘will sing (rather e.g. than read)’
<u>inpañgansionán</u>	‘was sung at’
<u>magsikansión</u>	‘will each sing’
<u>magsikansionán</u>	‘will each sing in turn’
<u>batík</u>	‘run’
<u>onbatík</u>	‘will run’
<u>akabatík</u>	‘happened to run’

APPENDIX III

<u>mañgibatík</u>	‘will run off with’
<u>ibatík</u>	‘will be run off with’
<u>makabatík</u>	‘can run’
<u>makakabatík</u>	‘inclined to run’
<u>añgibatikán</u>	‘was rushed to’

Basic Vocabulary (Swadesh 200-word list) (verbs are cited in the form of unaffixed stems)

all	<u>amín</u>
and	<u>tan</u>
animal	<u>áyep</u>
ashes	<u>dápol</u>
at	<u>ed</u>
back of person	<u>bedég</u>
bad	<u>maogés</u>
bark of tree	<u>obák</u>
because	<u>ta</u>
belly	<u>egés</u>
big	<u>báleg</u>
bird	<u>manók</u>
to bite	<u>ketkét</u>
black	<u>andekét</u>
blood	<u>dalá</u>
to blow	<u>sibók</u>
bone of person	<u>pokél</u>
to breathe	<u>añgés, linawá</u>
to burn	<u>poól</u>
child	<u>ogáw, anák</u>
cloud	<u>lorém</u>
cold	<u>ambetél</u>
to come	<u>la</u>
to count	<u>biláñg</u>
to cut with bolo	<u>potót</u>
day	<u>ágew</u>
to die	<u>patéy (on-)</u>
to dig	<u>kótkot</u>
dirty	<u>maruták, maríñgot</u>
dog	<u>asó</u>
to drink	<u>inóm</u>
dry	<u>amagá</u>
dull (blunt)	<u>epél</u>
dust	<u>dabók, sapók</u>

APPENDIX III

ear	<u>layág</u>
earth	<u>dálin</u>
to eat	<u>kan</u>
egg	<u>iknól</u>
eye	<u>matá</u>
to fall or drop	<u>pelág, páktak</u>
far	<u>arawí</u>
fat	<u>matabá</u>
father	<u>amá</u>
fear	<u>takót</u>
feather	<u>bagó</u>
few	<u>daisét</u>
to fight	<u>lában</u>
fire	<u>apóy</u>
fish	<u>sirá</u>
five	<u>limá</u>
to float	<u>letáw</u>
to flow	<u>ágos</u>
flower	<u>rósas, bolaklák</u>
to fly	<u>tekiáb</u>
fog	<u>kélpa</u>
foot	<u>salií</u>
four	<u>apát</u>
to freeze	<u>ketél</u>
fruit	<u>boñgá, prutas</u>
to give	<u>íter</u>
good	<u>maóñg, maábig</u>
grass	<u>diká</u>
green	<u>bérde, bírdi</u>
guts, intestines	<u>páit</u>
hair	<u>buék</u>
hand	<u>limá</u>
he	<u>sikató, Ø</u>
head	<u>oló</u>
to hear	<u>deñgél</u>
heart	<u>púso</u>
heavy	<u>ambelát</u>
here	<u>diá</u>
to hit	<u>kená</u>
hold in hand	<u>pekét, bénben</u>
how	<u>pánon</u>
to hunt	<u>anóp</u>
husband	<u>asawá</u> (= spouse)
I	<u>siák, ak</u>

APPENDIX III

ice	<u>yélo</u>
if	<u>no</u>
in	<u>ed</u>
to kill	<u>patéy</u> (-en)
know	<u>amtá</u>
lake	<u>loók</u>
to laugh	<u>elék</u>
leaf	<u>bolóñg</u>
left (hand)	<u>kawigí</u>
leg	<u>salí, bíkkiñg, ólpo</u>
lie on side	<u>dokól</u>
to live	<u>biláy</u>
liver	<u>áltey</u>
long	<u>andokéy</u>
louse	<u>kotó</u>
male	<u>lakí</u> (man: <u>toó</u>)
many	<u>dakél</u>
mother	<u>iná</u>
mountain	<u>palandéy</u>
mouth	<u>soñgót, sañgí</u>
name	<u>ñgarán</u>
narrow	<u>maíñget</u>
near	<u>asíñgger, kárne</u> (flesh: <u>lamán</u>)
neck	<u>béklew</u>
new	<u>bálo</u>
night	<u>lábi</u>
nose	<u>eléñg</u>
not	<u>ag, aliwán, andí</u>
old	<u>daán, matákken</u>
one	<u>isá, sakéy</u>
other	<u>aróm</u>
person	<u>toó</u>
to play	<u>galáw</u>
to pull	<u>goyór</u>
to push	<u>tolák</u>
to rain	<u>orán</u>
red	<u>ambalañgá</u>
right, correct	<u>sústo</u>
right (hand)	<u>kawanán</u>
river	<u>ílog</u>
road	<u>karsáda, dalán</u>
root	<u>lamót, señgég</u>
rope	<u>lobír</u>
rotten	<u>anolók</u>

APPENDIX III

rub	<u>górgor</u>
salt	<u>asín</u>
sand	<u>buér</u>
to say	<u>bagá</u>
scratch	<u>súgu</u>
sea, ocean	<u>dáyat</u>
to see	<u>neñgnéng</u>
seed	<u>bokél</u>
to sew	<u>dáit</u>
sharp	<u>mákdem</u>
short	<u>antikéy</u>
to sing	<u>kansión, kánta</u>
to sit	<u>iróñg</u>
skin of person	<u>báog</u>
sky	<u>táwen</u>
to sleep	<u>ogíp</u>
small	<u>melág, kelág</u>
to smell	<u>añgób</u>
smoke	<u>aséwek</u>
smooth	<u>píno, palánas</u>
snake	<u>olég</u>
snow	<u>linéw</u>
some	<u>aróm</u>
to spit	<u>lópda</u>
to split	<u>piság, palduá</u>
to squeeze	<u>pepés, serét</u>
to stab or pierce	<u>sáksak</u>
to stand	<u>alagéy</u>
star	<u>bitéwen, bitóen</u>
stick	<u>bíslak</u>
stone	<u>bató</u>
straight	<u>máktek</u>
to suck	<u>sópsop</u>
sun	<u>ágew</u>
to swell	<u>larág</u>
to swim	<u>lañgóy</u>
tail	<u>ikól</u>
that	<u>man, tan</u>
there	<u>ditán, dimán</u>
they	<u>sikará, irá</u>
thick	<u>makapál</u>
thin	<u>maímpis, mabéng</u>
to think	<u>nónot</u>
this	<u>ya</u>

APPENDIX III

thou	<u>siká, ka</u>
three	<u>taló</u>
to throw	<u>tópak, bóntok</u>
to tie	<u>siñgér</u>
tongue	<u>dalá</u>
tooth	<u>ñgipén</u>
tree	<u>kiéw</u>
to turn or veer	<u>likó</u>
two	<u>duá</u>
to vomit	<u>otá</u>
to walk	<u>akár</u>
warm	<u>ampetáñg</u>
to wash	<u>orás</u>
water	<u>danóm</u>
we	<u>sikatá, sikatayó sikamí, itá, itayó, kamí</u>
wet	<u>ambasá</u>
what?	<u>antó</u>
when?	<u>kapigán</u>
where?	<u>inér</u>
white	<u>amputí</u>
who?	<u>siopá</u>
wide	<u>malápar, maawáñg</u>
wife	<u>asawá (= spouse)</u>
wind	<u>dagém</u>
wing	<u>payák</u>
wipe	<u>ponás</u>
with	<u>ed, tan</u>
woman	<u>bií</u>
woods, forest	<u>takél</u>
worm	<u>bigís</u>
ye	<u>sikayó, kayó</u>
year	<u>taón</u>
yellow	<u>duyáw</u>